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CCXL.—*Catalysis. Part XVIII.* The Reactions of Both the Ions and the Molecules of Acids, Bases and Salts: The Reactions of Alkyl Halides with Phenoxides and Ethoxides.*

By JOHN HANSTON SHRODER and SOLOMON FARLEY ACREE

THE two recent papers by Segaller (T., 1913, 103, 1154, 1431) on the action of alkyl haloids on sodium phenoxide show that the reaction-velocity increases with dilution, the formula

$$K_r = K_1 + a \log V,$$

used by Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner (*Zeitsch. physikal. Chem.*, 1890, 6, 289), applying equally well to Segaller's results. Ever since the brilliant work of Arrhenius on the ionic theory, and Ostwald on the relation between the ionisation of acids and the activity in ester catalysis, inversion of sucrose and hydrolysis of acetamide, chemists generally, Kahlenberg (*J. Physikal. Chem.*, 1901, 5, 339; 1902, 6, 1) especially, Michael (*Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1910, 43, 322) and Armstrong being notable exceptions, have believed that only ions enter appreciably into chemical reactions. Even the known "deviations from the ionic reaction," especially those produced by added salts, were thought to be due to a change in the ionic reaction by the salts themselves. It was pure chance that Arrhenius and Ostwald worked with reactions in which ions are chiefly concerned, and as the "deviations from the ionic reaction" or "salt catalysis" observed by them were believed to be partly or wholly due to the reactions of the non-ionised electrolytes, the workers in this laboratory have since 1905 been guided by the theory that both the ions and molecules of acids, bases and salts, must in all cases be examined for activity. Johnson and Acree in 1907 (*Amer. Chem. J.*, 37, 410; 38, 258) brought this idea clearly for salts, and in 1908 Shadinger and Acree wrote: "We are studying the problem whether acids, bases and salts enter into these reactions through their ions or molecules, or both." Besides the discussion of "salt catalysis" (*ibid.*, 1908, 39, 125) we gave the equation (*ibid.*, p. 228) $dx/dt = K_{\text{ions}}\alpha(1-\alpha) + K_{\text{mols}}(1-\alpha)^2$ for reactions of the ions, as Arrhenius, Ostwald, and all others had then have done, and then gave (*ibid.*, p. 228) the equation $dx/dt = K'_{\text{ions}}(1-\alpha)(1-x)^2$ for the activity of the "undissociated acid, base or salt," this idea and equation being the first contribution to the theory of chemical reactions and the catalysis

* For references to the earlier papers see *Amer. Chem. J.*, 1913, 49, 67.

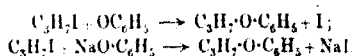
deviations from the ionic reactions" or "salt catalysis" since Arrhenius' brilliant work in 1885. Before the American Chemical Society in Baltimore, in December, 1908 (*Science*, **30**, 624), one of us stated that: "We see, then, that the question whether the reaction is ionic (simple or complex) or the molecular form of a given acid, base, salt or other neutral substance, is the chief constant transformed directly into the end products depends entirely upon the relative magnitudes of the various constants, and therefore varies widely in the different problems." Our work (see *Chem. J.*, 1912, **48**, 352; 1913, **49**, 116, 127, 345, 369, 474, and earlier papers) has now shown that this new idea of the activity of non-ionised electrolytes is fully as important for chemical reactions as the idea that ions are active. To express reaction velocities completely, we must use the equation

$$K_N = [K_1\alpha + K_2(1-\alpha)]1 \cdot (f)C_{\pm}$$

The second term on the right side of the equation represents a factor for "salt catalysis," and the first term gives the activity of ions and molecules in normal solutions having the ionisation and the velocity K_N . This theory has been found to hold in over thirty reactions studied by us in concentrated solutions (1 to N 32), as well as in ideal solutions (N 32 to N 2048), the reactions involving the three most important classes of chemical change, namely, metathesis, pure catalysis and intramolecular rearrangement. By this theory we have been able to reinterpret the earlier work of Arrhenius, Ostwald, Conrad and his co-workers, Leiden, Tubandt, Stieglitz, Bredig, Goldschmidt, Holmberg, Walker, van Dam, Blankensma and Segaller as reactions of ions and molecules, instead of ions alone. The theory has, moreover, now been accepted and used by Arrhenius (Taylor in Arrhenius, *Medd. K. Vetenskapsakad. Nobelinst.*, 1913, **2**, 1683, 1687, 1689, 1690, 1694; 1913, **35**, 1774), Dawson (T., 1913, **103**, 103, this vol., p. 1093), Goldschmidt (*Zeitsch. Elektrochem.*, 1909, **13**, 13; *Zeitsch. physikal. Chem.*, 1910, **70**, 627), Bredig (*Zeitsch. Elektrochem.*, 1912, **18**, 535, 543; *Zeitsch. physikal. Chem.*, 1912, **85**, 129, 170, 211), Holmberg (*Zeitsch. physikal. Chem.*, 1912, **84**, 451, 468, 469), Biddle (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, **36**, 1687, and earlier papers), Kilpi (*Zeitsch. physikal. Chem.*, 1913, **86**, 1687), and Worley (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], **27**, 459), and bids to become generally useful in all reactions involving electrolytes.

Stiller studied the reactions of N/2-sodium phenoxide with a series of different alkyl haloids at 42.5° in order to measure relative chemical activities. Fortunately, he investigated the

action of *n*-propyl iodide on varying concentrations of sodium phenoxide, and it is this work that interests us at present and extends our series of investigations with methyl and ethyl iodide at 25° and 35°. Lack of time alone is all that has prevented us from using all the other alkyl haloids in our work on the phenoxides, ethoxides, and urazoles. We have now extrapolated Segaller's data to obtain the reaction-velocities for solutions containing $N/2$, $N/4$, $N/10$, and $N/20$, and have found by the use of the equation, $K_s = K_i\alpha + K_m(1-\alpha)$, that his data harmonise extremely well with ours and with our theory, both the phenoxide ion and the non-ionised sodium phenoxide seeming to react with *n*-propyl iodide, as follows.



The following tables show the values of K_i and K_m obtained by us from our own work on methyl and ethyl iodides and sodium, potassium, and lithium phenoxides at 25° and 35°, and the Segaller's work at 42.5°. Because of larger experimental error the values of K_i do not agree as well at 35° as at 25°. The values of α used by us in recalculating Segaller's data were obtained by extrapolation of H. C. Robertson's data for sodium phenoxide at 0°, 25°, and 35°. It is seen that the ratio K_i/K_m for both methyl iodide and ethyl iodide and sodium phenoxide is from 5 to 6 at 25° and 6 to 7 at 35°, whilst for propyl iodide it is about 17 at 25° and the reaction is almost purely ionic in solutions more than $N/50$. The value for K_i for the phenoxide ion and methyl iodide is about five times as large at 25° and 35° as for ethyl iodide, which in turn is about three times the value of K_i found for the phenoxide ion and propyl iodide at 42.5°.

Temperature, 25°.

	K_i	K_m
Sodium phenoxide and methyl iodide ...	0.0282	0.0047
Potassium " " " " ...	0.0283	0.0047
Lithium " " " " ...	0.0287	0.0047
Sodium phenoxide and ethyl iodide ...	0.00551	0.0007
Potassium " " " " ...	0.00518	0.0007
Lithium " " " " ...	0.00534	0.0007

Temperature, 35°.

Sodium phenoxide and methyl iodide ...	0.0909	0.014
Potassium " " " " ...	0.1036	0.0095
Sodium phenoxide and ethyl iodide ...	0.0183	0.0027
Potassium " " " " ...	0.0197	0.0027
Lithium " " " " ...	0.0174	0.0027

Temperature, 42.5°.

Sodium phenoxide and propyl iodide ...	0.0128	0.00075
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Our chief interest in Segaller's work and that of Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner lies in the fact that the change in K_N with dilution shows the equation $K_N = K_1 + a \log V$, as written by Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner. A more general form is

$$K'_N - K_N = a \log (V'/V),$$

in which K'_N and K_N represent $V'K_N$ and VK_N , the reaction-activities for the concentrations $1/V'$ and $1/V$, as used in our earlier papers. This equation is purely empirical, has never been on any scientific foundation, and it does not involve the change in ionization of the ethoxide or phenoxide, because Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner did not consider the possibility of the reaction of the sodium ethoxide or phenoxide, but spoke of all these substances as non-electrolytes, or "nichtleitende Körper." We have therefore interested ourselves in determining why this equation holds so excellently, as it undoubtedly does, for the work of Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner, Segaller, and for a part of ours to which we have applied it.

When we write Conrad's equation as (1) $K'_N - K_N = a \log (V'/V)$, treat of our simultaneous equations as (2) $K_N = K_1 + K_m(1 - \alpha)$ and (3) $K'_N = K_1\alpha' + K_m(1 - \alpha')$, and subtract (2) from (3), we get $K'_N - K_N = (K_1 - K_m)(\alpha' - \alpha)$. By comparing equations (2) and (3) we get (5) $K'_N - K_N = a \log (V'/V) = (K_1 - K_m)(\alpha' - \alpha)$, and from this (6) $\alpha = \frac{(K_1 - K_m)(\alpha' - \alpha)}{\log(V'/V)}$ and (7) $\alpha = \frac{K'_N - K_N}{\log(V'/V)}$. The

equation (1) of Conrad's equation (1) has a scientific basis, therefore only if equation (6) actually gives "constants" for a . We recalculated Segaller's work, and Dr. W. A. Taylor has that Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner, and we have also applied these equations to much of our own work; we find that equations (6) and (7) hold excellently within the experimental errors. Of course the central point hinges on the validity of the relation

$\frac{K'_N - K_N}{\log(V'/V)} = K$, an empirical equation that holds very well in the

concentrated solutions of a number of electrolytes to which we have applied it, whether the electrolyte obeys the Ostwald dilution law or is too "strong" to do so. This equation cannot hold for all concentrations, because the ratio V'/V keeps on changing after complete ionisation is reached, whereas $\alpha' - \alpha$ then becomes constant. We are investigating all these relations fully, and extended reports on the work of Segaller, and of Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner, will soon be published by Dr. J. H. Shroder and Dr. W. A. Taylor.

As seen in tables VI of both sections of the experimental part, that both equations (6) and (7) give very good constants for

α , the two values, 0.00265 and 0.00269, for sodium phenoxide and propyl iodide at 42.5° agreeing better than the values 0.00271 and 0.002594 for sodium ethoxide and methyl iodide at 24°. These values in tables VII of both sections that the values for " K_N calculated" agree well with those for " K_N found."

It is thus seen that the empirical relation

$$K'_N - K_N = a \log (V'/V)$$

used by Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner, and by Segaller, agrees with the relation $K'_N = K_N$ observed by Bredig (*Zeitsch. Elektrochem.*, 1905, **10**, 582), Tubandt (*Annalen*, 1905, **339**, 41; 1907, **354**, 19; 1910, **377**, 284), Steger (*Rec. trav. chim.*, 1899, **18**, 13, 41), and by McCombie and Scarborough (this vol., p. 1304), and Myer and Acree (*Amer. Chem. J.*, 1912, **48**, 358; 1913, **49**, 141, 367), and the salt catalysis equation, $K_N = K_1\alpha + K_2\alpha^2$, or its equivalent, used by Arrhenius, Spohr, Euler, Stieglitz and others, are all special cases that can be converted into our general equation

$$K_N = [K_1\alpha + K_2(1 - \alpha)][1 + (f)C_{\text{salt}}],$$

involving the reactions of both the ions and the non-ionized species of acids, bases, and salts.

Interaction of Sodium Phenoxide and Propyl Iodide at 42.5°

TABLE I.

K_N Found for Sodium Phenoxide and Propyl Iodide at 42.5°

Concentration of sodium phenoxide.		Concentration of sodium phenoxide.	
V.	K_N , K_N average.	V.	K_N , K_N average.
2	0.00280	10	0.00180
	0.00293		0.00475
	0.00305	20	0.00552
	0.00309		0.00571
4	0.00369		
	0.00371		

TABLE II.

Ionisation of Sodium Phenoxide at 42.5°

V.	α .	$1 - \alpha$.
2	0.1826	0.8174
4	0.2400	0.7600
10	0.3265	0.6735
20	0.4065	0.5935

TABLE III.

K_s and K_∞ Found for Sodium Phenoxide and Propyl Iodide at 42.5°.

	<i>K_s</i>	<i>K_∞</i>
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 4	0.01337	0.000648
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.01325	0.000673
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.01264	0.000809
<i>V</i> = 4 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.01319	0.000704
<i>V</i> = 4 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.01246	0.000932
<i>V</i> = 10 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.01185	0.001364*
Average	0.01280	0.000753

* This value was omitted.

TABLE IV.

K_s Calculated and Found for Sodium Phenoxide and Propyl Iodide at 42.5°.

<i>V</i> .	<i>K_s</i>	<i>K_s calculated.</i>	Error, per cent.
2	0.00297	0.00295	- 0.7
4	0.00370	0.00364	- 1.6
10	0.00478	0.00469	- 1.9
20	0.00562	0.00565	+ 0.5

TABLE V.

Per Cent. of Reaction Due to Ions and to Molecules.

Concentration of sodium phenoxide <i>V</i> .	Per cent. of reaction due to α <i>K_s</i>	Per cent. of reaction due to $(1 - \alpha)K_{\infty}$
2	79.14	20.86
4	84.40	15.60
10	89.10	10.90
20	92.09	7.91

TABLE VI.

K_s Found for Sodium Phenoxide and Propyl Iodide at 42.5°.

	$\alpha = \frac{K_s - K_{\infty}}{\log(V/V')}$	$\alpha = \frac{(K_s - K_{\infty})(\alpha' - \alpha')}{\log(V/V')}$
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 4	0.002425	0.002297
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.002589	0.002480
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.002650	0.002698
<i>V</i> = 4 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.002713	0.002618
<i>V</i> = 4 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.002746	0.002870
<i>V</i> = 10 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.002789	0.003205
Average	0.00265	0.00269

TABLE VII.

K_s Found, K_s Calculated (obtained by using "a" in the equation $K'_s = K_s + a \log (V'/V)$), and Percentage Error

V.	K_s found.	K_s calculated. for $a = 0.00265$.	Error in per cent.	K_s calculated. for $a = 0.00269$.	Error
2	0.00297	0.002970	0.00	0.00297	0.00
4	0.00379	0.003767	-1.77	0.00378	-0.2
10	0.00478	0.004820	+0.83	0.00485	+1.6
20	0.00562	0.005620	0.00	0.00566	+0.7

Interaction of Sodium Ethoxide and Methyl Iodide at 24°.

TABLE I.

K_s Found for Sodium Ethoxide and Methyl Iodide at 24°.

Concentration of sodium ethoxide	K_s .	Concentration of sodium ethoxide	K_s .
1	0.05512	20	0.08000
2	0.06276	40	0.09438
5	0.07182	80	0.1022
10	0.07950		

TABLE II.

Ionization of Sodium Ethoxide at 24°.

V.	α .	$1 - \alpha$.	V.	α .	$1 - \alpha$.
1	0.1470	0.8530	20	0.5075	0.4925
2	0.2346	0.7654	40	0.6040	0.3960
5	0.3335	0.6665	80	0.7030	0.2970
10	0.4170	0.5830			

TABLE III.

K_s and K_m Found for Sodium Ethoxide and Methyl Iodide at 24°.

V.	K_s .	K_m .
V' 1: V' 2	0.1294	0.04230
V' 1: V' 5	0.1215	0.04191
V' 1: V' 10	0.1312	0.04184
V' 1: V' 20	0.1304	0.04212
V' 1: V' 40	0.1284	0.04244
V' 1: V' 80	0.1274	0.04261
V' 2: V' 5	0.1328	0.04129
V' 2: V' 10	0.1330	0.04121
V' 2: V' 20	0.1306	0.04194
V' 2: V' 40	0.1281	0.04260
V' 2: V' 80	0.1273	0.04290
V' 5: V' 10	0.1331	0.04114
V' 5: V' 20	0.1297	0.04280
V' 5: V' 40	0.1270	0.04350
V' 5: V' 80	0.1267	0.04454
V' 10: V' 20	0.1275	0.04310
V' 10: V' 40	0.1262	0.04608
V' 10: V' 80	0.1258	0.04630
V' 20: V' 40	0.1253	0.04740
V' 20: V' 80	0.1255	0.04720
V' 40: V' 80	0.1256	0.04700
Average	0.1287	0.04354

TABLE IV.

K_{rel} Calculated and Found for Sodium Ethoxide and Methyl Iodide at 24°.

<i>K_{rel}</i>	<i>K_{rel}</i> calculated.	Error in per cent.	<i>V</i>	<i>K_{rel}</i>	<i>K_{rel}</i> calculated.	Error in per cent.
0.05512	0.05603	- 1.68	20	0.08696	0.08676	+ 0.23
0.06276	0.06352	- 1.21	40	0.09448	0.09498	- 0.52
0.07182	0.07194	- 0.16	80	0.1022	0.1034	- 1.17
0.07950	0.07905	+ 0.57				

TABLE V.

Per Cent. of Reaction Due to Ions and to Molecules.

Concentration of sodium ethoxide	Per cent. of reaction due to αK_{rel}	Per cent. of reaction due to $(1-\alpha)K_{rel}$	Concentration of sodium ethoxide	Per cent. of reaction due to αK_{rel}	Per cent. of reaction due to $(1-\alpha)K_{rel}$
1	33.75	66.25	20	75.28	24.72
2	47.53	52.47	40	81.84	18.16
3	59.66	40.34	80	87.51	12.49
4	67.89	32.11			

TABLE VI.

 α Found for Sodium Ethoxide and Methyl Iodide at 24°.

α	$\frac{K_{rel} - K_{rel}(\alpha)}{\log(V/V)}$	α	$\frac{(K_{rel} - K_{rel}(\alpha))(\alpha - \alpha)}{\log(V/V)}$
<i>V</i> = 1 : <i>V</i> = 2	0.02538		0.02478
<i>V</i> = 1 : <i>V</i> = 5	0.02388		0.02271
<i>V</i> = 1 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.02438		0.02299
<i>V</i> = 1 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.02447		0.02359
<i>V</i> = 1 : <i>V</i> = 40	0.02456		0.02851
<i>V</i> = 1 : <i>V</i> = 80	0.02474		0.02921
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 5	0.02276		0.02116
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.02393		0.02221
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.02420		0.02729
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 40	0.02438		0.02837
<i>V</i> = 2 : <i>V</i> = 80	0.02431		0.02923
<i>V</i> = 5 : <i>V</i> = 10	0.02551		0.02328
<i>V</i> = 5 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.02515		0.02461
<i>V</i> = 5 : <i>V</i> = 40	0.02509		0.02556
<i>V</i> = 5 : <i>V</i> = 80	0.04523		0.02622
<i>V</i> = 10 : <i>V</i> = 20	0.02478		0.02560
<i>V</i> = 10 : <i>V</i> = 40	0.02488		0.02944
<i>V</i> = 10 : <i>V</i> = 80	0.02513		0.02697
<i>V</i> = 20 : <i>V</i> = 40	0.02498		0.02739
<i>V</i> = 20 : <i>V</i> = 80	0.02531		0.02768
<i>V</i> = 40 : <i>V</i> = 80	0.02564		0.02860
Average	0.02470		0.02594

TABLE VII.

K_N Found, K_N Calculated (obtained by using "a" in the Equation $K'_N = K_N + a \log (V'/V)$), and Percentage Error.

V.	K_N	K_N calculated		K_N calculated	
	found.	for $a = 0.02470$.	Error, per cent.	for $a = 0.02394$.	Error, per cent.
1	0.05512	0.05458	- 0.99	0.05372	- 2.56
2	0.06276	0.06199	- 1.24	0.06150	- 2.06
5	0.07182	0.07182	- 0.00	0.07182	- 0.00
10	0.07950	0.07948	- 0.03	0.07963	+ 0.16
20	0.08696	0.08669	- 0.31	0.08743	+ 0.54
40	0.09448	0.09412	- 0.38	0.09524	+ 0.80
80	0.10220	0.10159	- 0.59	0.10305	+ 0.83

Conclusions.

(1) It has been shown that the work of Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner on the interaction of methyl iodide and sodium ethoxide at 24°, and that of Segaller on the interaction of *n*-propyl iodide and sodium phenoxide at 42.5°, harmonises with our own work along these lines. Their data give constants for K_1 and K_m , substituted in the equation $K_N = K_1 a + K_m (1 - a)$, and furnish excellent evidence that both the ethoxide and phenoxide as well as the non-ionised sodium ethoxide and sodium phenoxide molecules, react with the alkyl haloids. The values $K_1 = 0.05458$ and $K_m = 0.04354$ are found for methyl iodide and sodium ethoxide at 24°, whereas $K_1 = 0.0128$ and $K_m = 0.000753$ are found for sodium phenoxide and propyl iodide at 42.5°.

(2) Hecht, Conrad, and Brückner, and Segaller, found that reaction-velocities can be expressed accurately by the equation $K'_N = K_N + a \log (V'/V)$, an equation which does not take into consideration the changing values of the ionisation of the ethoxide and phenoxides. We have found that this equation harmonises with our theory and the equation $K_N = K_1 a + K_m (1 - a)$, but on account of the fact that the changes in volume, ionisation, and reaction-velocity correspond closely with the equations

$$a = \frac{K'_N - K_N}{\log (V'/V)} = \frac{(K_1 - K_m)(a' - a)}{\log (V'/V)}$$

We are indebted to the Carnegie Institution of Washington for aid in this work.

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CCXII.—*The Limits of Inflammability of Mixtures of Methane and Air.*

By MORRICE JOHN BURGESS and RICHARD VERNON WHEELER.

IN a recent communication (this vol., p. 1859) Coward and Brinsley suggested that "inflammability must be regarded as a specific property, either present or absent, of any given gaseous mixture under definite conditions of temperature and pressure" (p. 1884); independent of the shape and size of the vessel containing it, and independent also of the nature of the means used for ignition in a first place" (p. 1861).

On the basis of this definition, a "criterion" of inflammability is put forward, which, stated briefly, demands that the true "limit-mixture" must be regarded as that in which flame can be propagated upwards—indefinitely.

It is well known that mixtures of methane, for example, and air are different limits of inflammability, both higher and lower, dependent on the direction in which the flame has to travel.* Coward and Brinsley were probably led to their choice as to what constitutes a true "limit-mixture" by consideration of the fact that a smaller percentage of inflammable gas is required (they already with the lower-limit) for upward than for downward propagation of flame, and by the belief that the experimental conditions specified by them disclosed the least quantities of the combustible gases, hydrogen, methane, and carbon monoxide, that are capable of forming with air mixtures in which self-propagation of flame can take place.

It does not seem to us desirable so to restrict the use of the term "limit-mixture." The most important industry in which knowledge of the limits of inflammability of gaseous mixtures is required is mining. The occurrence of fire-damp in mines constitutes, as is well known, one of the gravest dangers to the industry; not so much, it is believed, because of the possibility of widespread explosions taking place in fire-damp and air mixtures extending throughout the workings, modern legislation regarding the ventilation of the workings rendered such occurrences exceedingly unlikely, but because a local accumulation of fire-damp, forming an explosive mixture with the air, may become ignited and transmit flame to

* This fact has been emphasised by Professor Enrique Hauser in a brochure entitled "*Leçons sur le grisou*" (Madrid, 1908). Hauser has summarised the best results given by various experimenters for the limits of inflammability of methane-air mixtures, and has offered an explanation of the differences.

any fine coal dust that may be deposited on the roadway, and produce a widespread coal-dust explosion.

Legislation has attempted to deal also with this danger, stipulating that frequent analyses shall be made of the air in mine roadways and workings, and precautions taken to prevent the percentage of methane contained in the air from exceeding a certain minimum. Despite precautions, accumulations of fire-damp usually near the roof, sometimes occur; and, should sufficient fire-damp mingle with the ventilating current and by some means encounter a sufficiently intense source of heat, what is technically called a "local ignition" may occur. In the majority of cases, no damage or loss of life is caused by these "local ignitions," which usually take the form of a slowly-moving flame near the roof.

Such cases of the propagation of flame in fire-damp-air mixtures are those most frequently reported. It will be realised that the danger lies in the existence, over a considerable length of roadway, of a mixture in which a flame can travel horizontally. A great danger arises when, as has been known to happen, a fall-in of the roof liberates, and distributes in the ventilating current, a quantity of fire-damp that has accumulated in cavities above the roof.

A uniform inflammable mixture of fire-damp and air may occur throughout any considerable area of a coal mine, but this is an instance when a disused heading (or cul-de-sac), in which the air was practically stagnant, was slowly fed with fire-damp from the neighbouring strata until, when the fact was discovered, the whole heading had become uniformly filled with a mixture containing 6 per cent. of methane. It has sometimes happened also, that the slow ventilating current travelling through a heading from a goaf (or worked-out place) has been found to be an inflammable mixture, uniform in composition throughout its extent. In such cases the dangerous "limit-mixtures" are such as will allow of self-propagation of flame throughout the mixture, whether ignition occurs at the roof, floor, or centre of the roadway.

The fire-damp of British mines consists of methane mixed with varying proportions of nitrogen; also, carbon dioxide, trace carbon monoxide and ethylene may be present, and, occasionally, traces of ethane have been detected.

This paper records the results of determinations of the upper and lower-limits of inflammability of mixtures of pure methane with air, and shows how the compositions of the limit mixtures

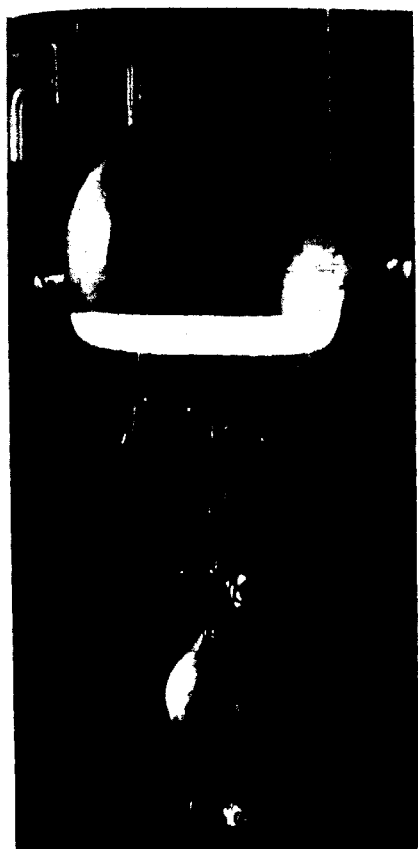


FIG. 2.

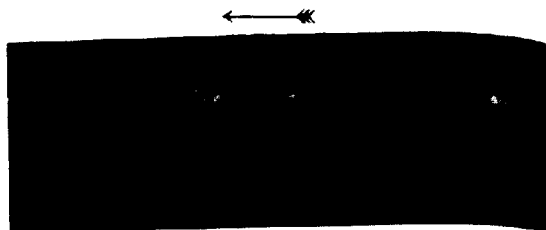


FIG. 2. Photograph of the surface of the film after the first exposure to the light source.

FIG. 3.

FIG. 4.

FIG. 5.

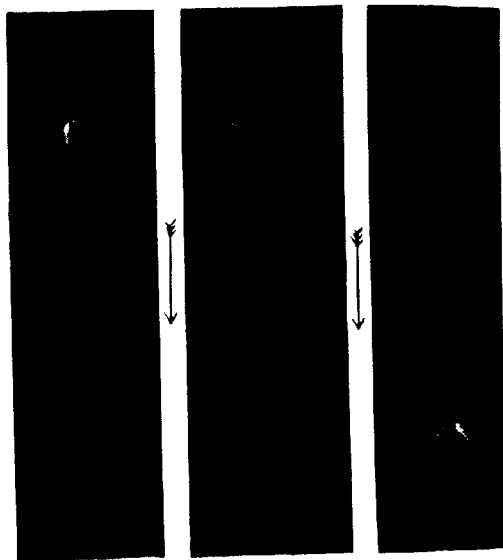


FIG. 3, 4, 5. Photographs of the surface of the film after the second exposure to the light source.

The first exposure to the light source was made with the film in the position shown in FIG. 2. The second exposure was made with the film in the position shown in FIG. 3. The third exposure was made with the film in the position shown in FIG. 4. The fourth exposure was made with the film in the position shown in FIG. 5.

after, dependent on the manner in which ignition is effected.* These results are as follows:

	Methane, per cent.	
	Lower limit.	Higher limit.
central ignition in large globe.....	5.6	14.8
central tube, closed at both ends:		
central ignition at bottom *	Not less than 5.40	Not more than 14.8
central ignition at top †	6.0	13.4
horizontal tube, closed at both ends:		
ignited at one end	5.4 (flame travels only along top of tube) 5.6 (methane all burnt) ‡	14.3

* Lussac and Berzelius obtained what appeared to be a self-propagating flame in a mixture containing, according to analysis, 5.3 per cent. of methane. They were unable to repeat the experiment.

† The determinations made by Hauser (*loc. cit.*), using the Le Chatelier burette (upward propagation of flame), were: lower limit 6.05 per cent., higher limit 13.9 per cent. methane. Hauser obtained pure methane from aluminum carbide.

The manner in which the flame travels in the different mixtures is by no means the same, and an attempt has been made to indicate the more striking differences by diagrams. Fig. 1 represents the flame travelling upwards in a closed tube (6 cm. in diameter) containing a 5.4 per cent. methane-air mixture, and Fig. 2 the flame travelling horizontally in a like mixture. Figs. 3 and 4 illustrate the stages in the progress of the flame downwards in a closed tube through a mixture containing 6.0 per cent. of methane.

When an electric spark is passed at the bottom of a closed vessel containing methane-air mixtures with 5.0, 5.1, 5.2, etc., per cent. of methane, flares of flame are produced which travel distances increasing with the percentage of methane, until with 5.4 per cent. of methane present the distance of travel reaches 2 metres in a tube 2 metres long. It is possible that the flame in a 5.4 per cent. mixture might travel upwards more than 2 metres; it might travel indefinitely, and, on the other hand, it might die out after a distance of 3 metres or less. Since it is obviously impossible to make a crucial experiment to test this point, it must suffice to say that the lower-limit mixture for upward propagation of flame contains not less than 5.4 per cent. of methane. The flame in mixtures containing 5.35 per cent. of methane, contained in a test glass tube 6 cm. in diameter, never exceeded a distance of travel of 50 cm.; in 5.3 per cent. and 5.25 per cent. mixtures the flame travelled 40 cm. and 30 cm. respectively.

It will be seen in Fig. 2 that the flame travelling horizontally in the influence of added nitrogen on the limits, as determined by central ignition in a large globe, is described in a subsequent paper.

a 5.4 per cent. mixture occupies only the upper quarter of the containing vessel, and analysis of the mixture left in a tube 6 cm. in diameter after the flame had travelled along it showed it to contain 3.25 per cent. of methane. When a tube 10 cm. in diameter was used, 3.9 per cent. of methane remained in the products of combustion. Presumably, if a large room were filled with such a mixture and a light applied at some point near the floor, a column of flame would travel upwards from the point of ignition to the roof and spread along the upper portion of the room.

It may not be generally known that when a slow current of air containing between 4 and 5 per cent. of methane passes over a lamp-flame, such as that of an oil lamp, the cap or aureole that normally forms round the lamp-flame may become detached and travel along with the current. Similarly, if a slow current of air containing 3 or 4 per cent. of coal gas is allowed to ascend a vertical tube and a succession of electric sparks passed at the bottom, such a column of flame can be caused to pass from end to end of the tube, a fraction of the mixture being burnt.

Of a like nature are such mixtures of hydrogen and air as will form "balls" of flame to travel (perhaps indefinitely) upwards through them with the convection current in the manner described by Coward and Brinsley.

From the practical point of view such mixtures are not in themselves dangerous, but they are potentially dangerous in that they could convey flame to richer mixtures.

From the scientific point of view it is of interest to know what such curious flames can be produced, but the doubt must ever remain whether actually "indefinite" propagation of flames can take place in the mixtures that exhibit them; and the fact that the chemical reaction proceeds in but a small portion of the mixture, renders it difficult to employ for comparative measurements the "criterion" of inflammability adopted by Coward and Brinsley.*

* It should be noted that, making use of their criterion, Coward and Brinsley decided upon 4.1 per cent. as the lower-limit percentage of hydrogen in air (3.8 per cent. of hydrogen remaining in the mixture after the flame had passed). Dixon and Crofts (this vol., p. 2047) have obtained the following flame-ignition temperatures of various mixtures of hydrogen and oxygen:

$2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$	526°
$2\text{H}_2 + 2\text{O}_2$	511
$2\text{H}_2 + 8\text{O}_2$	478
$2\text{H}_2 + 16\text{O}_2$	472
$2\text{H}_2 + 32\text{O}_2$	—

The last mixture, which contained 5.88 per cent. of hydrogen, could not be ignited, although five experiments were made in which the temperatures

It may be remarked that if the object of their criterion of inflammability is to specify the least quantity of inflammable gas that is capable of propagating flame, that object is not attained. For when a mixture of methane and air containing 5 per cent. of methane, enclosed in a 4 litre globe, is strongly agitated by revolving a small fan therein, and an electric spark passed at the centre of the globe, flame travels rapidly throughout the mixture, all the methane being burnt. The lower limit of inflammability of "agitated" mixtures of methane and air could therefore be stated to be 5.0 per cent., or possibly less with more violently agitated mixtures.

The flame travelling downwards in a 6.0 per cent. mixture, depicted in Figs. 3 and 4, and the flame started centrally in a 6 per cent. mixture contained in a large globe, both burn the methane completely. In both cases the line of demarcation between mixture that will propagate flame and one that will not is sharply marked.*

For the latter reason, as well as for their convenience, the criterion of inflammability for downward propagation, used by Chatelier and universally applied by French mining engineers for the measurement of fire-damp; and for propagation throughout globe, adopted by several investigators, would seem to commend themselves for such comparative measurements as a study of the propagation of flame in gaseous mixtures may demand.

EXPERIMENTAL.

The methane used was prepared from aluminium carbide, and separated from traces of acetylene by passing through ammoniacal cuprous chloride, and from hydrogen by passing slowly over heated palladium precipitate heated at 90°. It contained 5 per cent. of methane.

The explosion-vessels were glass cylinders, sealed at each end,

of 250, 600, 700, 1000, and 1700 cc. respectively. Dixon and Crofts considered that part of inflammability had been passed in the last mixture, but they noted when that combustion occurred of part of the mixture.

*The following determinations of the lower-limits, downward propagation, made by Mr. A. Whitaker. With mixtures containing, according to analysis, 5.6 and 5.91 per cent. of methane, flame was propagated throughout the test-tube of 7 cm. in diameter and 150 cm. long. With 5.59, 5.98 and 6.01 per cent. of methane the flame travelled 12 or 15 cm. only.

A globe of mixture sufficient for two experiments was made containing 6.00 per cent. of methane. After one experiment, in which propagation of flame was not, sufficient air was added to the remainder of the mixture to reduce the percentage of methane to 5.99; flame travelled downwards only 15 cm. in this mixture.

6 cm. in diameter and 2 metres long. They were fitted with platinum firing points at one end and at the other with a side way tap, through which the mixtures to be experimented upon were introduced after the cylinders had been exhausted of air. The mixtures were made over glycerol and water in graduated gas gas-holders, and were all analysed before use.

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CXXIII.—*The Propagation of Flame in "Limit" Mixtures of Methane, Oxygen and Nitrogen.*

By MAURICE JOHN BURGESS and RICHARD VERNON WHEELER.

In a previous communication (T., 1911, 99, 1013) we argued that a "lower limit" mixture (and, similarly, a "higher-limit" mixture) is "one such that a given volume must, under the conditions of combustion, evolve just sufficient heat to raise an equal volume to its ignition-temperature."

According to this view, during the propagation of flame in a "limit" mixture a balance is struck between heat generated by combustion and heat employed in starting combustion, together with heat "lost" by conduction and radiation.

Theoretically, provided that the amount of energy imparted to the system by the initial source of ignition—an electric spark, for example—is small, so that no appreciable impetus to the propagation of flame occurs near the source of ignition, flame should travel throughout a true limit mixture at a uniform speed. Experiments to be described at a later date, establish the correctness of this supposition.

Further, it seems probable that the speed of travel of flame will be the same in all limit mixtures that comprise the same constituent gases. Experiments show this to be the case so far as flame propagation in mixtures of methane, oxygen, and nitrogen are concerned.

Limit mixtures thus offer several advantages for the study of the manner of propagation of flame in gaseous mixtures.

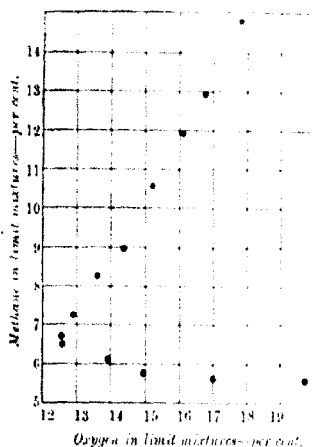
This paper contains the results of a series of determinations of the amounts of methane required to form higher- and lower-limit mixtures with various "atmospheres" ranging between an 11 per cent. of oxygen) and a mixture of air and nitrogen containing 13.45 per cent. of oxygen.*

* The results of preliminary experiments, obtained during the early part of 1913, were communicated to the Institution of Mining Engineers (Transactions, 1914, 24).

The lower-limit mixtures contained a minimum of 5.6 per cent. methane (when air was used) and a maximum of 6.45 per cent. when the 13.45 per cent. oxygen "atmosphere" was employed. The minimum value for the higher-limit mixtures was 6.7 per cent. methane (with the 13.45 per cent. of oxygen "atmosphere") and the maximum value 14.8 per cent. (with air).

The compositions were thus determined of a number of limit mixtures containing widely different proportions of the same three parts—methane, oxygen, and nitrogen—from which calculations of the best balances could be made with a reasonable expectation

FIG. 1.



although errors in calculating the specific heats of the gases or the ignition-temperatures of the mixtures might render the results not strictly accurate, the relative values would be correct.

The results obtained showing the percentages of methane that in limit mixtures with the different "atmospheres" can conveniently be given in the form of a diagram (Fig. 1).

In this diagram percentages of methane are plotted against

Vol. 46, 125) by Mr. W. C. Blackett, a member of the Explosions in Committee of the Home Office, at whose request the work was carried out.

* Other accounts have appeared of similar researches by the United States and Mexico (Technical Paper, No. 43, 1914) and by F. Le Prince Ringuelet (ibid., 1914, 158, 1999). Some determinations of the lower limits have also been made by A. Parker (this vol., p. 1002).

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percentages of oxygen in the limit mixtures. The different "limit mixtures," with the percentages of methane required in each case to form higher- and lower-limit mixtures, are as follows:

Atmosphere.		Methane, per cent.	
Oxygen.	Nitrogen.	Lower-limit.	Higher limit.
20.90	79.10 (air)	5.60	14.82
19.22	80.78	—	12.93
18.30	81.70	—	11.91
17.00	83.00	5.80	10.51
15.82	84.18	5.83	8.98
14.86	85.14	6.15	8.36
13.90	86.10	6.35	7.76
13.45	86.55	6.50	6.70
13.25	86.75	No mixture capable of propagating flame	

It will be seen that as the oxygen-content of the atmosphere is reduced the higher- and lower-limits come closer together, and with 13.45 per cent. of oxygen only mixtures containing between 6.50 and 6.70 per cent. of methane are capable of propagating flame. A mixture of methane with an atmosphere containing 13.25 per cent. of oxygen is incapable of propagating flame.

Presumably the true "extinctive" atmosphere for methane, the atmosphere in which a jet of methane, however perfectly aerated, would be just unable to burn—contains between 13.45 and 13.25 per cent. of oxygen.*

It may be noted that Haldane and Atkinson, who were first to work on this subject (*Trans. Inst. Min. Eng.*, 1895, 8), found that natural fire-damp could form an inflammable mixture with oxygen and nitrogen when the oxygen present had been reduced to between 12 and 13 per cent. The higher- and lower-limit mixtures of pure methane with the 13.45 per cent. oxygen atmosphere, according to our experiments, contain 12.55 and 14.82 per cent. of oxygen respectively.

The general equation representing the heat balance during spread of flame in a limit mixture is as follows:

$$(c'M + c''P)(T - t) + q = xQ \quad (1)$$

where c' , c'' represent the specific heats of the mixture (M), and the products of combustion (P) respectively, each at the initial temperature (T), t being the initial temperature of the mixture; q represents heat dissipated (by conduction and radiation); xQ heat evolved by the combustion of x parts of the combustible gas.

When methane is the combustible gas the calculations are complicated by the fact that combustion is incomplete. Approx-

* The extinctive atmosphere for methane is usually regarded as containing 12.55 per cent. of oxygen; and the "residual" atmosphere—that in which a flame has burnt to extinction—as containing about 15 per cent. of oxygen.

quantities of carbon monoxide occur in the products of combustion of the lower-limit mixtures, whilst with some of the higher-limit mixtures combustion is mainly to carbon monoxide, hydrogen, steam, and the "water gas reaction" proceeds as the products

consequently, in order to calculate the heat balance it is necessary to analyse samples of the products of combustion as soon as they are formed—before secondary reactions, which can play part in the propulsion of flame through the mixture, have taken

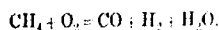
place. This was done so far as practicable by withdrawing and cooling very small samples of the "flame gases" whilst the flames were passing through the mixtures (which were contained in large glass globes), in the manner described in the experimental part of the paper.

The analyses of these gases show a regular relationship between the ratio O_2/CH_4 in the original mixtures and the proportions of methane that burn completely to form carbon dioxide and steam.

In the higher-limit mixtures the ratio O_2/CH_4 varied from a minimum of 1.20 (in the mixture with air) to a maximum of 1.87 (the mixture with the 13.45 per cent. oxygen "atmosphere"). The proportion of the methane burned in the former mixture to carbon dioxide and steam was 32.2 per cent.; in the latter mixture 83.3 per cent. The results have been summarised as follows:

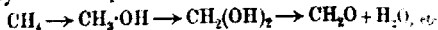
oxygen-content of atmosphere.	Ratio O_2/CH_4 in higher limit mixture.	Proportions of methane burned to carbon dioxide and steam.
20.90 (air)	1.20	32.2
19.22	1.29	37.8
18.30	1.35	42.6
17.00	1.44	49.0
15.82	1.60	59.0
14.86	1.62	64.5
13.90	1.77	77.4
13.45	1.87	83.0

As the proportion of oxygen to methane is increased, more and more of the latter is completely burned. With a ratio $O_2/CH_4 = 1.50$ the methane burns to carbon dioxide and half to carbon monoxide, whilst when the oxygen present is less than one and a half times the methane present the main reaction is represented by the equation:

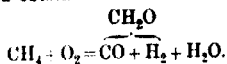


In comparison with these results those obtained by Bone and Mason with mixtures of methane and oxygen in equal proportions may be quoted (T., 1906, **89**, 676). The percentage composition of the gaseous products of combustion (no carbon was

deposited) averaged: CO_2 , 6.3; CO , 41.9; H_2 , 50.8; CH_4 , 1.0. Commenting on these results, Bone and Drugman say: "It has been shown that, below the ignition-point, methane burns through at an early stage steam and formaldehyde. The process can probably be best expressed as follows:



"At high temperatures the formaldehyde would certainly decompose into carbonic oxide and hydrogen, so that in complete combustion we should obtain:



"The 6 per cent. of carbon dioxide formed in our experiments would obviously arise by the secondary interaction of steam with carbonic oxide in the flame."

As a general conclusion from our results, we hold the view that the essential reaction in the propagation of flame in the limit mixtures is that responsible for the formation of carbon monoxide, hydrogen, and steam in equal volumes.

The heat evolved by this reaction is probably almost equally divided between the products of combustion of one "layer" of mixture and the adjoining unburnt "layer"; it is, however, sufficient to raise the unburnt layer to its ignition-temperature. Following rapidly upon this reaction, some of the carbon monoxide and hydrogen is burned, the proportion depending upon the gas concentration. The additional heat added to the system in this latter manner enables the nearest unburnt layer to attain its ignition-temperature.

Finally, as the burnt gases cool, the water-gas reaction comes into play, as is shown by comparison of the analyses of the "burnt gases" and "final gases" for the same mixture (compare "The Water-Gas Equilibrium in Hydrocarbon Flames," by G. I. Andrew, this vol., p. 444).

Assuming this to be the correct interpretation of the sequence of events, calculation of the heat balance of each mixture was made, using the data supplied by the analyses of the flame gases.

Calculation having been made of the percentages by weight of the constituent gases of the mixture composed of equal parts of burnt and unburnt gases, equation (1) can be put in the form

$$(\text{CO}_2A + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4B + \text{C}_2\text{H}_2C + \text{CO}_2D + \text{CO}E + \text{CH}_4F + \text{H}_2G)(T-t) + xQ + x'Q',$$

CO_2 , C_2H_4 , etc., being the specific heats of the respective gases at the temperature $T-t$, and A , B , etc., the percentages by weight of those gases. Of the methane burned, x grams form carbon monoxide

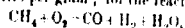
of steam, the heat evolved by the reaction being Q calories per gram; and x' grams form carbon monoxide, hydrogen, and steam, the heat evolved by the reaction being Q' calories per gram.*

Some doubt attaches to the value which should be assigned in each case to T , the ignition temperature of the mixture. Tables of the "ignition-temperatures" of various gases do not, in the majority of cases, afford information as to the percentage composition of the mixture formed by the combustible gas with air (or oxygen) when ignition occurs. Thus, the experiments of Dixon and Howard (T., 1909, 95, 514), in which a heated jet of the combustible gas was allowed to flow into a heated atmosphere of air or oxygen, only determined for each gas the ignition temperature of a mixture having (presumably) the lowest ignition temperature, without showing the composition of that mixture.

In a recent paper by Dixon and Crofts (this vol., p. 2036) the above ignition-temperatures of different mixtures of hydrogen and oxygen, determined by the method of adiabatic compression suggested by Nernst, are given, and it appears that increased oxygen concentration is accompanied by decreased temperature of ignition. A similar conclusion for methane air mixtures may be drawn from the experiments of Taffanel and Le Floch (*Compt. R.*, 1913, 167, 469); so long as the ratio O_2/CH_4 was greater so much less than 2.0, the ignition-temperatures of the mixtures were the same; a continued increase in the methane-concentration, however, was accompanied by a regular increase in the ignition-temperatures of the mixtures.

Using this relationship between oxygen concentration and ignition-temperature, established by Taffanel and Le Floch, we have related the ignition-temperatures of our mixtures, taking Dixon and Howard's lowest figure as being probably most nearly correct for mixtures having ratios O_2/CH_4 2.0 or more.[†] The temperature range between 650° for such mixtures and 715° for the

The values employed in our calculations are: for the reaction $CH_4 + 2O$, $Q = 11,910$ calories per gram; for the reaction



20.6 calories per gram. For the specific heats (at constant volume) we have the following determinations:

Oxygen	0.1548	0.0000237
Methane	0.4501	0.0000167
Nitrogen	0.1677	0.0000167
Carbon dioxide	0.1531	0.0000597
Carbon monoxide	0.1730	0.0000167
Hydrogen	2.4020	0.0000167
Steam	0.3300	0.0001207

Taffanel and Le Floch, in their determinations, did not adequately allow, as did also Howard, for the influence of heated surfaces.

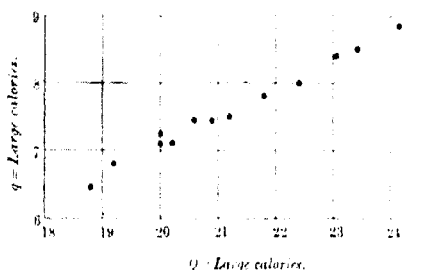
mixture having a ratio $O_2/CH_4 = 1.20$ (the higher-limit mixture with air).

The results of the calculations are shown in Fig. 2, where q is heat evolved, is plotted for each limit mixture against q , the heat unaccounted for or "lost." It will be seen that the two are practically proportional, the heat unaccounted for averaging for the mixture 35 per cent. of the total evolved.

This heat-loss, the magnitude of which is no doubt due to the fact that the accumulation of sufficient energy for the propagation of flame is a prolonged process—the combustion of methane takes place "by stages,"* is necessarily made up of loss by (1) conduction and convection, and (2) radiation.

The number of calories transmitted by the flame to any distant layer of unburnt gas by conduction and convection can

FIG. 2.



be regarded as approximately proportional to the difference in temperature between the two, and a curve representing the transmission of heat by flames of different temperatures would be, nearly as possible, a straight line.

As regards heat transmitted by flames as radiant energy, as has been found in the case of non-luminous Bunsen flames, 30 mm. in diameter, may amount to as much as 20 per cent. of the whole heat of combustion†—the effect of temperature is more difficult to estimate. Callendar suggested Planck's equation for a single wave-length may be assumed for a Bunsen flame of mean wave-length 3.5μ , gives the following table of approximate values for the variation in intensity of

* The well-known "lag" in the ignition of methane is also explicable on this cause (compare T., 1911, 99, 2020).

† Third Report, Gaseous Explosions Committee, British Association, August

LIMIT MIXTURES OF METHANE, OXYGEN AND NITROGEN. 2603

temperature, for comparison with the fourth power law of Stefan for the radiation of a black body:

Absolute temperature ...	1000°	1500	2000°	2500°	3000°
Radiation, Planck.....	0.016	0.059	0.142	0.233	0.331
Radiation, Stefan.....	0.009	0.045	0.142	0.347	0.721

Commenting on this table, Callendar says: "The rate of variation, according to Planck's formula for a single wavelength, is much slower than the fourth-power law, and tends in the limit to be directly proportional to the absolute temperature at high temperatures. The actual rate of variation should be between these limits, but nearer to Planck, unless carbon begins to separate in such mixtures at high temperatures."*

As already noted, q , the "loss" of heat from our mixtures (in case of which did carbon separate), is practically directly proportional to Q , the total heat evolved.

EXPERIMENTAL.

The different mixtures of oxygen and nitrogen were made in large glass gas-holders holding sufficient for a dozen or more experiments, and the limit mixtures with methane prepared from them in smaller gas-holders over glycerol and water.

The method of determining the limits, and the apparatus employed, were similar to those described in our previous paper (*ibid.*, pp. 2020--2024). The methane used was prepared from bismuth carbide, and was purified from traces of acetylene by passing through ammoniacal cuprous chloride, and from hydrogen by passing slowly over "oxidised" palladium precipitate heated to red heat. It contained 99.7 per cent. of methane.

Each mixture was analysed, the methane being determined by absorption (with electrolytic gas or excess of air and oxygen added in the case might require), and the oxygen by absorption by strongly alkaline pyrogallol.

A large number of experiments with each atmosphere were made before the limits were fixed as closely as was desired. Corresponding mixtures were then carefully prepared and inflamed in a special form of explosion-vessel designed for securing a sample of "flame gases" whilst the flame was travelling (Fig. 3, p. 2592).

This explosion-vessel was a 2½-litre globe, with glass-covered electrodes reaching to the centre. Through the side of this globe were fused, in the positions shown in the photograph, two fine glass tubes, either of which could make connexion, through a three-way tap, with a small bulb filled with mercury to within 1 cc. of its capacity. The space above the mercury in this small

* Third Report, Gaseous Explosions Committee, British Association, Appendix A.

Per cent. by volume.

Oxygen content of atmosphere.	Description of limit mixture.	Analysis of limit mixture.				Analysis of flame gases.						Analysis of final gases.						Calories.	
		O ₂	CH ₄	N ₂	CO ₂	O ₂	CO	H ₂	CH ₄	N ₂	CO ₂	O ₂	CO	H ₂	CH ₄	N ₂	Q _h	Q _l	
		17.80	14.82	67.38	4.80	nil	10.10	10.50	0.85	73.75	4.99	nil <th>8.71</th> <th>10.74</th> <th>2.05</th> <th>73.52</th> <th>24,150</th> <th>8850</th>	8.71	10.74	2.05	73.52	24,150	8850	
19.92	"	16.74	12.93	70.33	5.00	nil	8.19	8.19	0.72	77.91	5.32	nil	7.69	7.87	1.59	77.52	23,400	8600	
18.30	"	16.12	11.91	71.97	5.37	nil	7.23	7.26	0.82	79.32	5.55	nil	5.95	6.25	1.70	80.55	23,050	8400	
17.00	"	15.22	10.55	74.23	5.55	nil	5.78	5.75	0.38	82.54	5.68	nil	5.68	5.20	0.56	82.82	22,400	8000	
15.82	"	14.40	8.96	76.64	6.03	nil	4.19	2.93	0.25	86.62	6.43	nil	3.18	2.81	0.59	86.96	21,800	7800	
14.86	"	13.56	8.36	78.05	6.27	nil	3.45	2.56	0.34	87.38	6.39	nil	2.96	2.53	0.26	87.86	21,200	7500	
13.90	"	12.88	7.26	79.86	6.41	nil	1.87	1.20	0.37	90.15	6.52	nil	2.34	0.96	0.35	89.82	20,900	7450	
13.45	"	12.55	6.70	80.75	6.62	nil	1.36	nil	0.55	91.32	6.92	nil	0.83	nil	0.96	91.28	20,200	7100	
13.45	Lower	12.57	6.50	80.93	6.82	nil	1.31	0.35	0.35	91.17	6.93	nil	0.47	nil	0.29	92.31	20,000	7100	
13.90	"	13.00	6.35	80.65	6.57	0.56	0.60	0.45	nil	91.82	7.27	0.34	nil	nil	nil	92.39	20,600	7450	
14.86	"	13.95	6.15	79.90	0.46	1.54	0.48	0.18	nil	91.34	7.00	1.90	nil	nil	nil	91.10	20,000	7250	
15.82	"	14.89	5.83	79.28	0.23	3.43	0.32	0.10	nil	89.92	6.60	3.65	nil	nil	nil	89.75	19,200	6900	
20.90 (air)	"	19.73	5.60	74.67	6.25	9.65	0.07	nil	nil	84.03	6.30	9.58	0.03	nil	nil	84.07	18,800	6450	

was thoroughly exhausted of air, and served, when the three-way tap was rapidly opened, to capture a sample of the gases at either of the two points where the capillary tubes ended within the explosion-vessel. When the whole apparatus was inverted this sample could be withdrawn, by means of a mercury pump, through the tap shown at the bottom of the photograph.

In all the limit mixtures the manner in which the flame travelled was the same. So soon as the igniting spark had been passed a flame shot up to the top of the vessel, bent over, and, after thus lighting the whole of the top quarter of the globe, travelled downwards to the bottom as a uniform layer of light blue colour.* This layer had an apparent thickness of between $1\frac{1}{2}$ and 2 inches, and travelled sufficiently slowly to enable the tap leading to the sampling vessel to be manipulated at the right moment.

The moment chosen for all the samples of which analyses are given in this paper was when the layer of flame had passed halfway past the end of the upper capillary tube, as indicated in Fig. 3 by the shading added to the photograph, which gives a very accurate idea of the appearance of the flame when observed through the side of the globe at the moment of sampling.

The gases were driven into the sampling-vessel under pressure of between 2 and 3 atmospheres, so that, although the space in that vessel unoccupied by mercury was under 5 c.c., between 10 and 100 c.c. of gases were obtained for analysis.

Samples of the products of combustion remaining in the explosion-vessel were withdrawn for analysis after sufficient time had been allowed for complete mixture.

Results of Experiments.—The compositions of the limit mixtures, and the analyses of the "flame gases" and "final gases" are given on p. 2604.

A correction has been introduced in the analyses of flame gases to the unburned mixture contained in the capillary tube leading to the sampling-vessel.

The last two columns in the table record the calculated values of $\log \eta$ and γ plotted in Fig. 2.

These results have already been discussed in the theoretical portion of this paper. An additional point that should be noted is the preferential burning of hydrogen over carbon monoxide in the mixtures that contain a ratio O_2/CH_4 greater than 1.5.

EXPERIALS,

UTHERKLAND.

* Some of the higher-limit mixtures the flame had a slightly reddish tinge.

CCXLIII.—*The Propagation of Flame in Mixtures of Methane and Air. The "Uniform Movement."*

By RICHARD VERNON WHEELER.

In the course of their well-known researches on the combustion of explosive gaseous mixtures, Mallard and Le Chatelier (*Ann. des Mines*, 1883, [viii], 4, 274) studied the propagation of flame in mixtures of methane and air contained in horizontal tubes. So far as such mixtures are concerned, the general conclusions drawn by them regarding the manner in which flame is propagated were as follows.

When the mixture contained in a horizontal tube closed at one end and open at the other is ignited at the open end, the flame travels for a short distance at a uniform speed. This "uniform movement" is followed by a "vibratory movement," in the course of which the flame travels backwards and forwards in an irregular manner, the mean speed from point to point along the tube being usually greater than that of the "uniform movement." The vibrations usually continue to the end of the tube, but sometimes during a particularly violent vibration the flame may be extinguished, owing to the mixing of burnt gases with the unburnt mixture.

When the mixture is ignited at the closed end of the tube, the flame travels, in short tubes at all events, with increasing speed towards the open end.

In the course of investigations on mine explosions, carried on in the first instance, for the Mining Association of Great Britain, and, latterly, at the Home Office Experimental Station, the necessity arose for repeating Mallard and Le Chatelier's experiments regarding mixtures of methane and air.

The present paper deals with the "uniform movement," the speed of which is the normal speed of propagation of flame by conduction of heat from layer to layer of the mixture, and is constant for a given mixture at a given temperature and pressure.

Mallard and Le Chatelier made a complete study of how far the diameter, length, and material of the tubes influenced the speed and duration of the uniform movement in many gaseous mixtures, with the object of determining the limiting dimensions required to ensure that the true speed—the speed that would be obtained in a mixture of indefinite extent—should be determined. Given the right dimensions of tubes, the material of which they were made did not appreciably affect the speeds. Repetition of Mallard

and Le Chatelier's experiments regarding these experimental conditions has confirmed their results.

The diameter of tube necessary to avoid cooling by the walls, and consequent retardation of the flame, was found to be greater the slower the speed of the flame. For the most slowly moving flames in mixtures of methane and air a tube of at least 5 cm. diameter is necessary. The speed of travel of flame in a tube 9 cm. in diameter is slightly greater than in a tube 5 cm. in diameter.

The duration of the uniform movement, which varies with each mixture, increases with the diameter and length of the tube up to a certain maximum, after which increase in length makes no appreciable difference. In a tube 5 cm. in diameter and 6 metres long the uniform movement in all mixtures of methane and air extends over a distance of about 150 cm., whereas in a tube of the same diameter and 2 metres long the distance travelled by the flame at a uniform speed may be less than 50 cm.

For their experiments Mallard and Le Chatelier used tubes 5 cm. in diameter and 1 metre long, and measured the speed of travel of flame over the first 50 cm. The length of the tube was sufficient to ensure that the measurements of the speed of the flame would not include part of the "vibratory movement," a fact which they themselves realised (*loc. cit.*, p. 317). Their measurements for the same mixture show, in consequence, rather wide variations. Their experiments were further vitiated by the fact that the methane used was prepared from sodium acetate ("il exhale une forte odeur d'acetone"). Such "methane" may contain as much as 10 per cent. of nitrogen, 10 per cent. of saturated hydrocarbons, and 2 or 3 per cent. of hydrogen.*

The conclusions drawn by Mallard and Le Chatelier were:

(1) The speed of the uniform movement increases regularly with the percentage of methane up to a certain maximum, after which it decreases regularly. The curve obtained on plotting speeds as ordinates and percentages of methane as abscissæ is thus represented by two straight lines meeting at a point. Their curve (from Plate VIII of their paper) is reproduced in Fig. 1.

(2) The maximum speed is obtained, not with that mixture containing the quantity of methane required for complete combustion, namely, 9.4 per cent., but with a mixture containing about 12 per cent. of methane. Le Chatelier ("Leçons sur le carbone," Paris, 1908) explains this result by assuming that the speed of propagation of flame during the uniform movement depends, not only on the temperature of combustion of the mixture, but on its thermal conductivity, which is greater the greater the

* Compare Hauser, "Leçons sur le grison," Madrid, 1908.

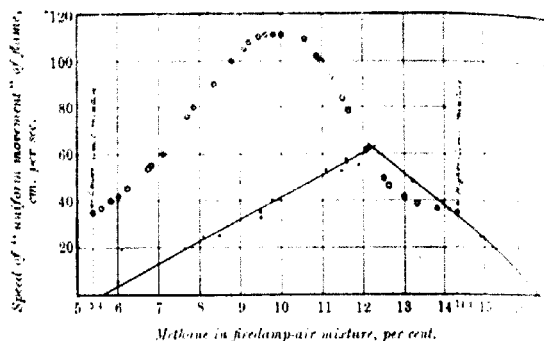
proportion of methane present. The thermal conductivities of air and of methane are 5.22×10^{-8} and 6.47×10^{-8} respectively.

Fresh determinations, made in the manner described in the experimental portion of this paper, do not bear out Mallard and Le Chatelier's results. The form of curve obtained on plotting speeds as ordinates and percentages of methane as abscissae is shown in Fig. 1.

It will be seen that there is practically no difference between the speeds attained in mixtures containing from 9.45 to 10.55 per cent. of methane,* such differences as there are being probably within the limits of experimental error.

Near the lower- and higher-limits of inflammability, which are, horizontally, are 5.4 and 14.3 per cent. respectively,

FIG. 1.



curve flattens, more noticeably towards the higher limit, and becomes, ultimately, nearly horizontal. It will be understood, therefore, that a prolongation of either "limb" of the curve—as to cut the zero velocity ordinate, as done by Mallard and Le Chatelier to determine the theoretical limits of inflammability—is not justifiable.

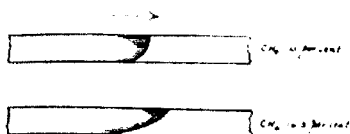
Vibrations were not developed by the flames in all the mixtures. In those containing more than 12.5 or less than 5.8 per cent. of methane the flame usually travelled at a uniform or slightly decreasing

* This conclusion is confirmed by another series of experiments in which different mixtures of methane and air were ignited at the centre of a large spherical explosion vessel. The time that elapsed between the moment of ignition and the first indication of pressure on the sides of the vessel was less the higher the percentage of methane in the mixture up to 9.5 per cent. methane, after which it remained practically constant up to 11 per cent.

speed throughout the length of the tube, although sometimes slight vibrations were noticeable in all but the "limit-mixtures." In these latter the speed of travel of flame was quite uniform throughout, and was the same for both the higher- and lower-limit mixtures.

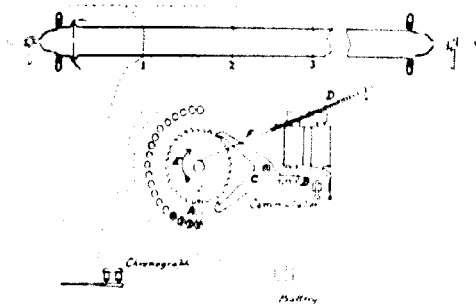
As noted in a previous paper (this vol., p. 2593), the flame

FIG. 2.



travelling horizontally in a 5.4 per cent. methane air mixture, contained in a tube 5 cm. in diameter, occupies only the upper part of the tube. The flames in the other mixtures of methane and air, including the higher-limit mixture, completely filled the cross section of the tube, the front of the flame (during the uniform

FIG. 3.



movement) being shaped as shown in Fig. 2. The faster the speed of the flame the blunter was its front.

EXPERIMENTAL.

The arrangement of glass tubes is shown in Fig. 3. Three lengths of tube of 5 cm. internal diameter, each 2 metres long, were joined together by broad pieces of stout rubber tubing, and supported horizontally in a straight line. Each end of the complete length

of 6 metres was flanged and ground to receive flanged end pieces which were held in position by metal clips. Each end-piece was fitted with a wide bore three-way tap. Glass-covered platinum electrodes reaching to the centre of the tube, leaving a spark gap of 3 mm., were fused 4 cm. from one end.

Another tube, similarly arranged, but of 9 cm. internal diameter, was used for a separate series of experiments.

"Screen-wires" of copper 0.025 mm. in diameter were threaded vertically across the tube through fine holes pierced through the walls at certain points, the holes being afterwards covered in adhesive plaster. In order to avoid including in the measurement of the speed of the flame any impetus that might be given by the igniting spark, the first screen-wire was fixed 40 cm. from the point of ignition. Other screen-wires were fixed 50, 100, 200, 300 and 400 cm. respectively from the first.

The method of recording the time of passage of flame along the tube was electrical. Each screen-wire carried a small electric current, the interruption of this current when the flame melted the wires being recorded by the movement of an electromagnet.

It was important to avoid error due to latency or "time-lag" of individual electromagnets. An instrument, which can be termed an automatic commutator, was therefore designed to enable each successive break in circuit to be recorded by the same electromagnet. This instrument is operated in the following manner:

One terminal of the battery supplying the electric current is connected to the brush, *A*, of the commutator (Fig. 3), and a lead from the other terminal of the battery conducts the current to the electromagnet of the chronograph, so that its armature is attracted. The current then passes by a lead to the electromagnet on the commutator, and that armature is also attracted; the lead carrying the current then goes to one terminal of the screen-wires on the explosion-tube one after the other; the other terminal of each screen-wire is connected to the corresponding stud on the commutator by separate leads.

Supposing the brush, *A*, to be resting on No. 1 stud (the position that it occupies at the beginning of an experiment), the current is then flowing through the chronograph electromagnet, the commutator electromagnet, and No. 1 screen-wire; then through the brush, *A*, back to the battery. Suppose now that the flame passes along the tube and melts screen-wire No. 1; the chronograph electromagnet releases its armature, and the pen it carries makes a mark on the moving surface; at the same time the armature, *B*, of the commutator electromagnet is released, and the anchor escapement, *C*, attached to the armature, is moved. This allows the

and spring, *D*, to pull the scape-wheel, *E*, round by the cord, *F*, which is wound on a drum attached to the axis of the scape-wheel. The brush, *A*, then moves on to stud No. 2, and the current at once begins to flow through screen-wire No. 2; the chronograph electromagnet and the commutator electromagnet, and the armatures of both these are again attracted; the pen on the chronograph is moved back to its former position, as also are the armature, and the escapement, *C*, whilst the brush, *A*, moves a little further on to stud No. 2. When the flame reaches No. 2 screen-wire the same cycle is repeated and so on for as many screens as may be required, all the interruptions of circuit being recorded by the pen on the chronograph.*

The chronograph used was the laboratory chronograph of the Cambridge Scientific Instrument Company, the speed of travel of the moving surface (a spool of Morse paper) being recorded by a road contact-clock.

Method of Conducting an Experiment. The mixtures of methane and air were made in a 140-litre gas-holder over water rendered slightly alkaline by potassium hydroxide. A rapid current of the mixture was passed through the explosion tube until the gases entering and leaving had the same composition, as shown by explosion-analyses of samples taken through the three-way taps. The volume of mixture equal to about six times the volume of the tube was found to be ample for sweeping out all the air contained in the tube.

After electrical connexions through the screen-wires and chronograph having been established, the left-hand end-piece of the explosion-tube was removed (by sliding it downwards) and the mixture ignited at the now open end by passing an induction coil spark.

The methane used was a particularly pure supply of fire-damp from a "blower" at a colliery in South Wales, whence it was pumped and compressed in cylinders. Analysis, after removal of 10 per cent. of carbon dioxide, showed it to contain 97.4 per cent. methane, 2.3 per cent. of nitrogen, and 0.3 per cent. of other impurities (carbon monoxide and ethylene). It contained no hydrogen or ethane.

A somewhat detailed description of this device has been given in the belief that it is of some value to other workers. The author has found it adequate for measuring the speed of the rapidly moving flames of coal-dust explosions and coal-gas explosions in large galleries. Its effectiveness depends essentially on the rapidity with which the brush of the commutator can be made to move from stud to the next; by suitable proportioning and adjustment of the moving magnet and regulation of the electric current passing through the magnets, the time for the brush to move from stud to stud can be made as little as $\frac{1}{100}$ th second.

Results of Experiments.—The results of all the determinations made of the speed of the uniform movement in different mixtures are given in the table that follows. As a general rule, the uniform movement extended for a distance of 150 cm. from the point of ignition, so that from each experiment with a particular mixture two determinations of the speed were obtained (between Nos. 1 and No. 2, and between No. 2 and No. 3 screen-wire respectively). Some of the more rapidly-moving flames, in mixtures containing between 9.5 and 11.0 per cent. of methane, began to vibrate just before reaching the third screen-wire; in such cases only the speed between screen-wires Nos. 1 and 2 was taken as being that of the uniform movement.

Methane in fire-damp: air mixture, per cent.	Speed of "uniform movement" of flame, cm. per second.
5.40	36.5, 36.0, 35.5, 35.5, 35.5, 35.5, 35.5, 35.5, 35.5.
5.60	37.0, 37.0.
5.85	40, 40.5, 40.5, 40.5.
6.25	46, 46, 45.5, 45, 45.5, 45, 45.5.
6.75	54, 54.
6.80	56, 55, 55, 55.
7.10	61, 59, 61, 59.
7.70	77, 77, 75, 75.
8.35	91, 90.
8.80	100, 100, 99, 100.
9.10	105, 104, 106, 104.
9.20	108, 109.
9.45	110, 110, 110, 110.
9.60	111, 111.
9.80	111, 112.
10.00	112, 110, 112, 113, 112, 110, 109, 113.
10.60	109, 109, 109.
10.90	102, 102, 101.
11.00	100, 98, 99, 99.
11.20	93, 92.
11.50	84, 84, 83, 83, 85, 84.
12.10	62.5, 62.
12.50	50, 50, 49.
12.65	49, 47, 48, 46.
13.00	42.5, 42, 42, 42.
13.05	41, 40.5.
13.30	39, 38, 39, 38, 38, 38, 38.
13.80	37, 36.5.
14.30	36.0, 35.5, 35.5.

For the determinations of the speed of travel of flame in the higher-limit mixture pure methane was used, since the 2.3 per cent. of nitrogen contained in the fire-damp slightly affected the lower limit, whereas it had no appreciable effect on the speed of travel of flame in the other mixtures (compare this vol., p. 2596).

A similar series of determinations was made, using an explosion tube of 9 cm. internal diameter. The speeds were from 5 to 100 per second greater than those of corresponding mixtures in a tube 5 cm. in diameter. The shapes of the curves connecting the

percentages of methane, and the limits of inflammability, were the same in both series of experiments.

The propagation of flame in mixtures of methane and air, and mixtures to which nitrogen has been added, has been further studied. An account of the work will be communicated later to the Society.

Addendum.

Since this paper was prepared an account has appeared of experiments on the same subject by A. Parker and A. V. Rhead (this vol. p. 2150). It is surprising to find that these authors are apparently unacquainted with Mallard and Le Chatelier's complete researches dealing with the "uniform" and "vibratory" movements during the propagation of flame in gaseous mixtures contained in glass tubes, as outlined in the present paper. Their work is interesting in that they emphasise the necessity, pointed out by Mallard and Le Chatelier, of employing tubes of ample diameter when conducting experiments of this nature; the tubes used were of too small a diameter to enable them to determine the true character of the speed percentage curve or the limits of inflammability.

LEWIS,
CHICHESTER.

LXIV.—*Volatile Oil from the Leaves of Barosma venusta.*

By ERNEST GOULDING and OSWALD DIGBY ROBERTS.

The genus *Barosma*, of which about thirty species exist in South Africa, derives its chief importance from the fact that certain species yield the so-called Buchu leaves, which are employed in medicine as mild disinfectants of the urinary tract. The physiological activity of the leaves is principally due to the volatile oil which they contain. The source of Buchu leaves of the British Pharmacopœia, or "short Buchu," is *Barosma betulina*, Bartl. and Endl., but the leaves of *B. crenulata*, Hook. and *B. serratifolia*, Endl., are also met with in commerce under the name of "long Buchu."

Another species of *Barosma*, *B. venusta*, Eckl. and Zeyh., occurs in considerable quantities in the Uitenhage District of the Cape Province. Information was desired in South Africa as to the medicinal value of the leaves of this plant in comparison with Buchu

leaves, and an examination of the material was therefore taken at the Imperial Institute.

The most characteristic constituent of the oil of *Barosma venusta* is diosphenol, which is present in quantities of 20–30 per cent. the oils of *B. crenulata* and *B. serratifolia*, however, contain only a very small proportion of this substance. The results of the present investigation show that the oil of *B. venusta* differs very considerably in odour and composition from that of Buchu leaves in that it does not contain any diosphenol.

In 1911 a sample of the leaves of *Barosma venusta* was received at the Imperial Institute from the Cape Province, South Africa. On distillation in a current of steam it yielded 2.7 per cent. of volatile oil, which was of a lemon-yellow colour and pleasant odour and had D_{20}^{25} 0.877 and α_D^{25} 1.24° in a 100-mm. tube.

A larger consignment of the leaves, forwarded in 1912, furnished 2.0 per cent. of volatile oil with the following constants:

D_{20}^{25}	0.865
α_D^{25} in 100 mm. tube	+ 0.47°
Acid value	5.6
Ester value	6.2

(Corresponding with 2.2 per cent. of esters, calculated as $C_{10}H_{17}OAc$.)

Ester value after acetylation

55

(Corresponding with 15.7 per cent. of total alcohols, or 14.3 per cent. of free alcohols and 2.2 per cent. of esters.)

Fractional Distillation of the Oil.

On distilling the oil under atmospheric pressure the following fractions were obtained, but some decomposition occurred:

Fraction.	Per cent.	Boiling point.	D_{20}^{25} .	α_D^{25} in 100 mm. tube.
I.	44	163–190°	0.8100	inactive.
II.	17	190–205	0.8932	inactive.
III.	28	205–230	0.9531	+ 0.30°
IV.	9	230–245	0.9610	liquid, but had coloured residue of this material.
Residue	2	—	—	—

Isolation and Identification of Myrcene.

When a portion of the oil was distilled under 60 mm. pressure about 48 per cent. collected between 83° and 88°. This fraction after being treated repeatedly with sodium and re-distilled had D_{20}^{25} 0.8060, and was optically inactive; it distilled at 145–147° under atmospheric pressure, but suffered partial decomposition

The hydrocarbon exhibited the properties characteristic of terpenes, for which the following constants have been recorded:

Pinner and Klobber ¹	D ₂₀ 0.8023	b. p. 167°.
Semmler ²	—	b. p. 171—172°.
Chapman ³	D ₂₀ 0.8046	b. p. 166—168°.
Enklaar ⁴	D ₂₀ 0.8013	b. p. 166—168°.
Semmler and Mayer ⁵	D ₂₀ 0.7937	—

¹ *Pharm. Rundsch.*, 1895, 13, 61.
² *Ber.*, 1901, 34, 3216.
³ *Ber.*, 1903, 33, 507.
⁴ *Ber.*, 1911, 44, 2010.
⁵ *Proc.*, Utrecht, 1905.

The terpene showed a great tendency to resinify, and readily combined with four atoms of bromine. On reduction with sodium and alcohol it was converted into a compound having D₂₀ 0.7860, a value which agrees well with those recorded for dihydromyrcene, namely, 0.7802 and 0.7852, by Semmler (*loc. cit.*) and Enklaar (*loc. cit.*) respectively. This reduction product furnished a tetra-meride, melting at 91°, which crystallised from methyl alcohol in short, white needles. The melting point of dihydromyrcene tetra-meride has been given as 87° by Semmler and Mayer (*loc. cit.*) and 88° by Enklaar (*loc. cit.*). By the action of a mixture of acetic acid and sulphuric acid on the original terpene, an ester was obtained which resembled linalyl acetate in odour, and, on hydrolysis, yielded an alcohol. This alcohol, when oxidised with chromic acid, did not furnish citral, but the odour of the product suggested the presence of some other aldehyde. These observations agree with those of Barbier (*Compt. rend.*, 1901, 132, 1048) on the oxidation of myrcenol. The existence of myrcene in the oil is therefore established.

Aldehydes: Identification of Anisaldehyde.

A portion of the oil was shaken with solution of sodium hydrogen sulphide. After the aqueous liquid had been separated and washed with ether, it was rendered alkaline by the addition of sodium peroxide, and extracted by repeated agitation with ether. The etheral solution was dried with anhydrous sodium sulphate, and the ether was removed by distillation. The residue, amounting to about 65 per cent. of the original oil, appeared from its taste and test to consist chiefly of anisaldehyde, and, on oxidation with potassium permanganate, was readily converted into anisic acid, which after recrystallisation melted at 183—184° (anisic acid has m. p. 184°).

Alcohols: Indication of the Presence of Linalool.

The fraction boiling at 190—205° under atmospheric pressure consisted largely of alcohols, and had a sweet odour resembling that of linalool; on oxidation it yielded citral, which was characterised by its odour and by the preparation of α -citryl- β -naphtholcinchoninic acid, melting at 199°. It is therefore probable that the alcohols consist in part of linalool.

Phenols: Absence of Diosphenol.

When the original oil, after being washed successively with sodium carbonate solution and sodium hydrogen sulphite solution to remove acids and aldehydes, was treated with 5 per cent. solution of sodium hydroxide, an absorption amounting to 0.2 per cent. took place. On acidifying the solution and extracting with ether, a phenolic substance was obtained, but in too small a quantity to admit of investigation; this product did not give a distinctive coloration with ferric chloride. No evidence could be obtained of the presence of diosphenol.

Ethers: Identification of Methylchavicol.

A fraction of the oil, boiling at 213—218°, was found to consist of methylchavicol, which was identified in the following way.

The fraction was heated with 20 per cent. alcoholic potassium hydroxide solution for two days in a sealed tube at 200°. The contents of the tube were diluted with water and extracted with ether. After drying the ethereal solution with anhydrous calcium sulphate, and removing the ether by evaporation, it was found that the oil had been converted almost quantitatively into anethole, which boiled at 232—234°, and solidified on cooling to a mass of crystals, melting at 22°. The product possessed the odour and sweet taste characteristic of anethole. Determinations of methyl in the original oil gave results indicating the presence of 21.5 per cent. of methyl ethers (calculated as methylchavicol):

0.2770 gave 0.0947 AgI. $\text{OMe} = 4.51$ or $\text{C}_9\text{H}_9 \cdot \text{OMe} = 21.5$ per cent.
0.2895 „ 0.0980 AgI. $\text{OMe} = 4.46$ „ $\text{C}_9\text{H}_9 \cdot \text{OMe} = 21.3$ „

Constituents of High Boiling Point.

The fraction which distilled at 230—245° was brownish-yellow, viscous, and had a somewhat empyreumatic odour; it probably contained sesquiterpenes, together with polymerides and decomposition products of myrcene, due to the high temperature to which it had been heated.

Summary of Results.

The results of this investigation indicate that the volatile oil of *Leucospermum canaliculatum* leaves has approximately the following composition:

	Per cent.
Hydrocarbons, chiefly or entirely myrcene	43.0
Aldehydes, " " " anisaldehyde	0.5
Phenols	0.2
Phenol ethers, methylchavicol	21.4
Alcohols, partly linalool (calculated as $C_{10}H_{17}OH$)	14.3
Esters (calculated as $C_{12}H_{17}OAc$)	2.2
Sesquiterpenes, loss, etc. (by difference)	18.4

In conclusion, reference may be made to an examination of the oil by Jønsen (*Pharm. J.*, 1913, [iv], 36, 60). Although the leaves from which he distilled the oil were obtained from the same source as those used in the present investigation, the results show certain differences, of which the most remarkable is that he found 6 per cent. of chavicol, whereas the authors have not been able to detect the presence of even a trace of this phenol.

The authors desire to express their thanks to Mr. J. C. Earl for much valuable assistance in the preliminary stages of this investigation.

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XLV.—Sodium Amalgams: Specific Volumes and Electrical Conductivities.

By ERNEST VANSTONE.

Account has already been given of the investigation of the thermal diagram and the determination of the specific volumes of solid and liquid sodium amalgams (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1911, 7,

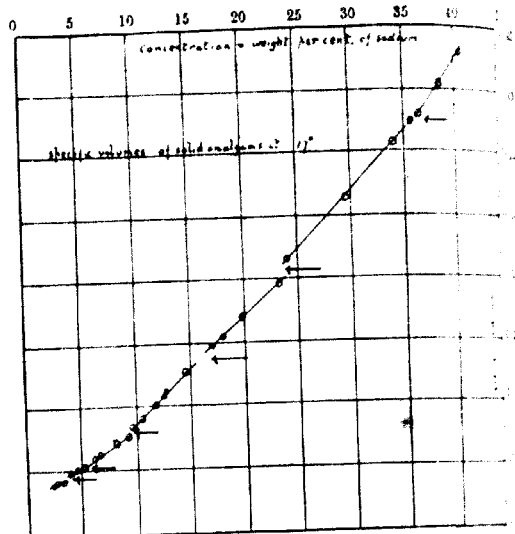
it was shown that when specific volume was plotted against concentration of amalgam expressed in atomic percentages, smooth curves were obtained, although the corresponding thermal diagram showed many discontinuities.

Since the publication of the first paper, the specific volumes have been plotted against concentrations expressed in percentages by weight. It was shown by Maey (*Zeitsch. physikal. Chem.*, 1899,

29, 119) that the specific volume of alloys is a linear function of the concentration expressed in percentages by weight. Hence the new volume-concentration diagram (Fig. 1) consists of a series of straight lines, having nearly the same obliquity, and confirms the existence of inter-metallic compounds shown by the thermal diagram.

The concentrations (in atomic percentages of sodium) where the

FIG. 1.



discontinuities occur are given below; those obtained by the thermal method are given for comparison.

Concentrations.

Weight per cent.	Atoms per cent.	Atoms per cent. (thermal)
36.0	83.0	85.2 and 81.4
23.6	73.5	73.5
16.4	63.0	63.3
9.4	47.5	47.5 and 51.5
5.2	32.5	33.3
2.8	20.0	17.9

When the comparative slope of the lines in Fig. 1 is considered and the fact that the concentrations have to be read from the diagram in percentages by weight and then transformed

percentages, the agreement between columns (2) and (3) in the above table is as satisfactory as can be expected.

The Constitution of Liquid Amalgams.

Many researches have been carried out on liquid amalgams, among for their object the determination of the molecular composition of metals in amalgams rich in mercury.

Measurements of (1) vapour pressure, (2) *E.M.F.*, and (3) lowering of freezing point show that the metal is present as a single atom, yet they cannot prove that that atom is not combined with a certain number of atoms of mercury.

Two other researches may be mentioned. (1) The rates of diffusion of metals in mercury have been found, and when atomic diffusivities are plotted against atomic weights, two curves are obtained; metals which do not form compounds with mercury have higher diffusivities and lie on one curve, whereas metals which are known to form compounds lie on a second curve with lower diffusivities. It has been suggested that compounds $M\text{Hg}_n$ are formed in which the attached mercury retards the process of diffusion.

Bornemann and Müller (*Metallurgie*, 1910, 7, 396) determined the electrical conductivity of liquid sodium amalgams, and obtained a marked discontinuity at a concentration of 33.3 atoms percent. of sodium, showing the existence of the compound NaHg_2 in the liquid condition.

The thermal diagram indicates the existence of at least five compounds of sodium and mercury, but their existence in the liquid condition was not made manifest by the electrical conductivity experiments.

We are led to inquire why this is so. Bornemann and Müller's experiments were carried out at very high temperatures, and it is possible that all the other intermetallic compounds were dissociated, the compound NaHg_2 was stable, since it has a much higher melting point, namely, 360° , than the other compounds; thus at the maximum point on the thermal diagram; other compounds, with the possible exception of Na_3Hg , do not show maxima.

It was thought that indications of the existence of the other intermetallic sodium mercury compounds might be obtained if physical properties were investigated at temperatures not far removed from the melting points of the alloys.

The specific volumes of liquid alloys at 110° , 184° , and 237° have already been determined.

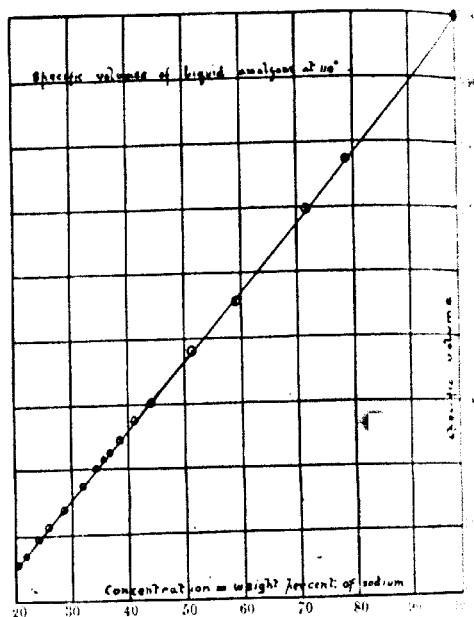
The concentration-volume diagram for 110° is shown in Fig. 2.

It is seen that the specific volume of the liquid alloys is a linear function of the concentration when expressed in percentage by weight.

The absence of discontinuities shows that the intermetallic compound Na_2Hg does not exist at 110° .

A consideration of Fig. 1 shows that the property of volume does not suffer any profound change when combination takes place between the metals sodium and mercury, so further

FIG. 2.



gations were made by means of electrical conductivity measurements of liquid amalgams.

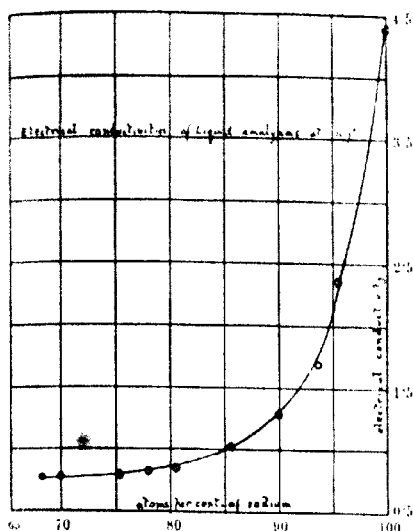
The Electrical Conductivities of Liquid Amalgams

The method of experiment has already been described in a previous paper. The amalgams were kept under paraffin, and drawn into a capillary spiral having platinum terminals sealed into glass at convenient points.

The spiral was open at the lower end and fitted with a glass stopper at the top. It was connected to a hydrogen apparatus, and after allowing any amalgam to enter, it was dried and filled with hydrogen.

The capillary was 1 mm. in diameter, and the distance between the platinum terminals about a metre when unwound. It was tested by finding the resistance of mercury filling the spiral.

FIG. 3.



Temperatures of approximately 110° and 135° were obtained by using with boiling toluene and xylene.

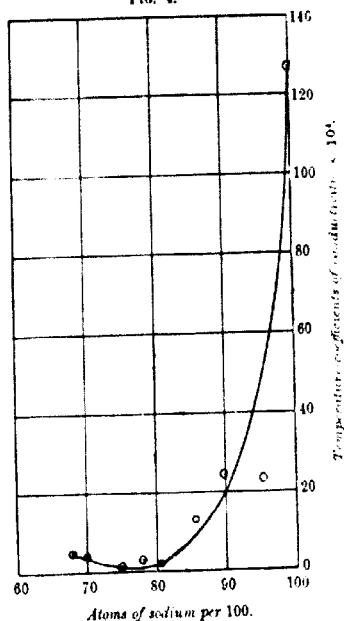
The results are given in the table below; concentrations are given in atomic percentages of sodium; the resistances refer to a spiral in which the resistance of mercury at 17° is 1 ohm.

It will be noticed that conductivity measurements have been made for each alloy at two temperatures differing by 26° . The data for the temperature coefficient has thus been obtained.

Electrical Conductivities of Liquid Alloys.

Concentration.	Resistance at 107°.	Conductivity.	Resistance (133°)	Conductivity.	Temperature Coefficient
100	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.2285 \\ 0.2286 \\ 0.2266 \\ 0.2260 \end{pmatrix}$	4.397	$\begin{pmatrix} 0.2455 \\ 0.2449 \\ 0.2477 \end{pmatrix}$	4.065	(-0.17)
95.36	0.4225	2.366	0.4334	2.307	0.0028
93.84	0.5835	1.714	—	—	—
89.98	0.7749	1.2905	0.8139	1.2286	0.0020
85.60	0.9796	1.0208	1.0133	0.9868	0.0016
80.50	1.1569	0.8643	1.1627	0.8600	0.0013
77.89	1.2124	0.8248	1.2248	0.8164	0.0012
75.31	1.2532	0.7979	1.2584	0.7946	0.0011
71.74	—	—	1.3087	0.7641	—
70.02	1.2921	0.7739	1.3096	0.7635	0.0008
68.08	1.2968	0.7711	1.3208	0.7571	0.0006

FIG. 4.



The conductivity-concentration curve for 107° is shown in Fig. 3. It is a rectangular hyperbola possessing no discontinuity. The results for 133° form a similar curve, which would lie slightly below that in Fig. 3.

It will be observed that the fall in conductivity is most marked at 100 to 85 atoms per cent. of sodium, the conductivity at 85 per cent. being less than one-fourth the value for pure sodium. It may be pointed out that the concentration of 85 per cent. is at the eutectic point in the thermal diagram.

The differences in conductivity for a temperature range of 26° are small, and become much smaller as the mercury content of the alloys increases.

The temperature-coefficient falls with extreme rapidity as we pass from pure sodium to alloys containing 5 and 10 atoms per cent. of mercury. The coefficient has an extremely small, almost constant value for alloys containing more than 20 atoms per cent. of mercury. This is shown in Fig. 4. The curve does not give any indication of the formation of compounds.

The conclusion to be drawn from electrical conductivity measurements for liquid amalgams is thus the same as from specific volume determinations, namely, that the intermetallic compounds of sodium and mercury are completely dissociated in the liquid solution.

It is possible also from the present and from previous work to compare the relative values of the properties specific volume, electrical conductivity, and freezing point in determining the constitution of alloys, and it is quite evident that the last is far superior in the certainty of its indications.

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XLVI.—*The System Ethyl Ether-Water-Potassium Iodide-Mercuric Iodide. Part III. Solutions Saturated with Respect to Solid Phases in the Four-component System.*

By ALFRED CHARLES DUNNINGHAM.

In fact that the surfaces of saturation with respect to solid phases divide the tetrahedron into two parts has been used as an arbitrary basis in the consideration of the system. That part representing supersaturated solutions, or complexes of solid and solution, has not been considered (this vol., p. 721, *et seq.*). The other part represents liquid phases only, and extends from the surfaces of

saturation with respect to solid to the edge BC of the tetrahedron (Fig. 11, Part II). It is therefore bounded by the solid saturation surfaces and portions of the side-planes, namely, $BFGHJZ$ on ACD , $BFNMdC$ on ABC , and $BZQPdC$ on BD . It has been found experimentally that liquid mixtures unsaturated with solid phases can exist as one, two, or three layers respectively.

FIG. 13.

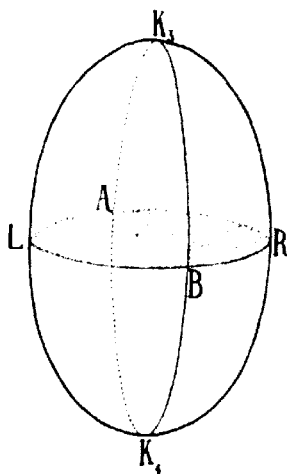
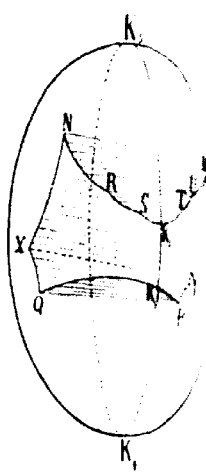


FIG. 11.



The above space representing liquids only is therefore divided into at least three parts, corresponding with these three cases.

The Formation of Two Liquid Layers.

It will be well to consider first the conditions under which mixtures, unsaturated with solid phases, can exist as two layers. In a four-component system all such mixtures lie inside what may be called a "two liquid volume," whilst the layers themselves are given by points on the surface enclosing this volume. A "two liquid volume," if complete, is more or less egg-shaped, and is circled by a critical curve, AK_3BK_4 , as shown in Fig. 13.* The critical curve divides the binodal surface into two parts, and any solution a on one part is conjugate with a definite solution

* For Fig. 12, see this vol., p. 731.

the other part. The line ab , which lies entirely inside the two-liquid space, represents all mixtures of a and b . A "two-liquid volume" may be intersected by the side-planes of the tetrahedron, or by the solid saturation surfaces of the system, that part of it becomes metastable. In Fig. 13 $LARB$ represents a curve of intersection, so that either the upper or lower part of the two-liquid space is rendered metastable. ALB and ARB are conjugate curves, that is, solutions given by points on LB are in equilibrium with definite solutions given by points on AB . That this must be so will be seen at once from the following considerations. When $LARB$ is the curve of intersection of a side-plane with the binodal surface, it lies entirely in that side-plane, which represents a three-component system. If solutions on ALB are not in equilibrium with solutions on ARB , they would therefore be conjugate with solutions given by points somewhere else on the right-hand side of the binodal surface; that is, either inside or outside the tetrahedron. In the former case a solution on ALB in a three-component system would be in equilibrium with a solution in a four-component system in the latter with a non-saturated solution. Neither of these cases is possible. In a similar way it can be shown that when the binodal surface is intersected by a solid saturation surface, ALB and ARB are conjugate, for if they were not, a saturated solution would be in equilibrium with either an unsaturated or a supersaturated solution. When, however, the binodal surface is intersected by a plane such as ALD (Fig. 11 (Part II)), ALB and ARB are not necessarily conjugate. In Fig. 11 (Part II) $NRSK_1TUM$ and QK_2P are curves of intersection of a binodal surface and the solid saturation surfaces, whilst LM and MF , QX and PY are curves of intersection of the binodal surface and the side-planes. $XNRSK_1TUMYPK_2QZ$ therefore represents the boundary of the stable portion of the binodal surface, K_1 and K_2 being points on the critical curve, the stable portion of which therefore extends from K_1 to K_2 . The relation between the stable and metastable portions of the two-liquid space is shown in Fig. 14, which is lettered to correspond to Fig. 11. The critical curve K_1K_2 divides the stable portion of the binodal surface into two parts, $NRSK_1K_2QX$ and

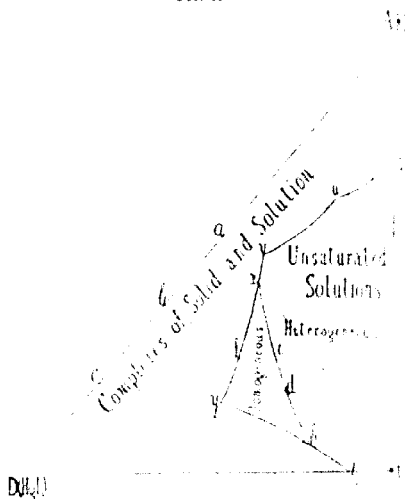
$$MUTK_1K_2PY,$$

so that all solutions given by points on one part are conjugate to solutions given by definite points on the other part. When, therefore, all pairs of conjugate points on $NRSK_1K_2QX$ and $MUTK_1K_2PY$ are joined, a space is formed, inside which lie all mixtures existing as two layers. This space is bounded by the stable portion of the binodal surface, $XNRSK_1TUMYPK_2QZ$,

and the surfaces formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on the following pairs of lines: K_2Q and K_2P , QX and PI and YM , NR and MU , RS and UT , SK_1 and TK_1 . Outside this space lie unsaturated homogeneous liquids, so that the binodal surface divides the unsaturated space into two parts, one of which represents liquid mixtures existing as two layers of homogeneous liquids. The latter is bounded by the conjugate surfaces (see Fig. 11, Part II):

- (1) The binodal surface $XNRSK_1TUMYPK_2QZ$.

FIG. 15.



- (2) The saturation surfaces $FNRG$, $MabU$, $GRSH$, $Uchv$, HSK_1TwJ , $ZJwpmgdePK_2Q$.

- (3) The portions of the side-planes $BFGHJZ$ on ACD , $BENX$ on ABC , and $ZQAM$ on BDC .

The conjugate curves cp and fn , cd and fg , gn and dp appear to be intersections of saturation surfaces and side-planes with a common binodal volume which extends into the tetrahedron, and which will be shown later, intersects the binodal volume, of which

$$XNRSK_1TUMYPK_2QZ$$

is the stable part of the surface.

As in the case of solutions saturated with solid phases, the

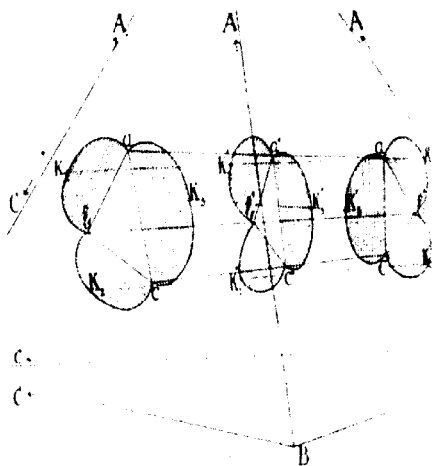
occurring in the system are best understood by studying the sections of a series of planes with the binodal and saturation faces. Fig. 15 shows diagrammatically the curves of intersection such a plane as ADL in Fig. 11. As in Fig. 12 (Part II), $xykh$ is the curve of intersection of the solid saturation surfaces, and k lying on the critical curves SK_1T and QK_2P respectively. The intersection of the plane with the stable binodal surface therefore extends from x to h , as shown by the curve xkh in Fig. 15. In this figure it is assumed that L represents a mixture of ether and water in which neither component is present in sufficiently great proportion to cause complete miscibility. $quxyghkl$ represents liquid mixtures. Those lying on $xghy$ are homogeneous; those on $quxyghkl$ exist as two layers. If L is joined to x and h , and ad and dh are produced to meet AD in a and c respectively, the line AD , which represents mixtures of potassium and mercuric iodide, is divided into three parts. Points on Aa and cD represent mixtures which on addition to L cause saturation without homogeneity. Mixtures on ac , however, on addition to L cause the system to become homogeneous before saturation is reached; for example, on adding the solid mixture b to the liquid L , the mixture lies on the line Lb . From L to d it exists as two layers; at d it becomes homogeneous, and then follows df until saturation is reached at f . The solid phase is necessarily potassium mercuric iodide, mercuric iodide, or, if Lb passes through y , a mixture of the two.

The position of L on BC (Fig. 11) determines the positions of ad and dh on the curves SK_1T and QK_2P respectively. In most cases the plane ADL cuts the critical curve K_1K_2 in a point e ; ae and eh are on opposite sides of this critical curve. When, therefore, Lb is on ae , which represents upper or ethereal layers, the mixture becomes homogeneous by the disappearance of the lower layer and persistence of the upper. When it cuts eh (as in Fig. 15), which represents lower or aqueous layers, homogeneity ensues by the disappearance of the upper layer and persistence of the lower. When Lb passes through e , the two layers become identical. The line xkh can lie entirely on one or other of the binodal surfaces without intersecting the critical curve. When it lies entirely on the part representing upper or ethereal layers, all mixtures become homogeneous by the disappearance of the lower layer; similarly, when it lies entirely on the part representing lower or aqueous layers, all mixtures become homogeneous by the disappearance of the upper layer.

The Formation of Three Liquid Layers.

In a ternary system three liquid layers, unsaturated with respect to solid phases, arise through the intersection of three binodal curves (see Roozeboom, "Die Heterogene Gleichgewichte," III, Part 2). In a quaternary system the three layers arise through the intersection of three "two-liquid volumes." Fig. 16 shows the simplest case of this, where three liquid layers occur in the ternary systems ACB and ADB . Thus, in the system ACB , aK_1c , bK_2a , cK_3b are the stable portions of three binodal curves intersecting in a , b , and c . These points of intersection represent

FIG. 16.



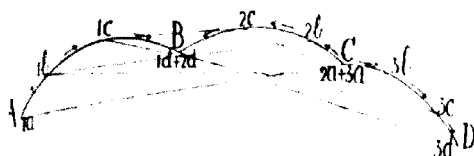
three conjugate liquids, the composition of which cannot vary in a ternary system; similarly, in the system ADB , $a'K_2b'$, $b'K_3c'$, $c'K_1a'$ are the stable portions of the binodal curves, a' , b' , and c' the three conjugate liquids. We have already seen that a binodal curve in a ternary system may be considered as arising from the intersection of the side-plane representing the ternary system with the surface of a "two-liquid volume" in the quaternary system. It therefore follows that between each pair of binodal curves in the ternary systems ACB and ADB a binodal surface extends through the four-component system. There are thus three binodal surfaces intersecting along the lines aa' , bb' , and cc' . These

present series of three conjugate liquids, such that a solution represented by a point a'' on the line aa' is in equilibrium with solutions represented by definite points b'' and c'' on the lines bb' and cc' respectively. $a''K_1''c''K_1''b''K_2''$ is a section across the area enclosed by the three binodal surfaces, such that a'' , b'' , and c'' are conjugate points. $a''K_2''b''$, $b''K_1''c''$, and $c''K_2''a''$ are thus two-liquid areas, whilst $a''b''c''$ is a three-liquid area. Any point in the triangle represents a mixture of the three liquids a'' , b'' , and c'' . The position of the point shows the relative amounts in which they are present.

From the consideration of a series of such sections it is clear that the volume enclosed by the three intersecting surfaces is divided into four parts, namely, three two-liquid volumes and a three-liquid volume, lying inside the others, of which $a''b''c''$ is a part.

In the system under consideration three liquid layers do not

FIG. 17.



AB represents bottom layers. BC represents middle layers. CD represents top layers.

in any of the ternary systems. The three-liquid volume here lies entirely inside the tetrahedron. The three curves representing a series of three conjugate liquids have been determined experimentally, and their form is shown graphically in Fig. 17, the same projection being employed as in Fig. 11 (Part II). Numbers obtained are given in table VI.*

In connection with the experimental work involved in the three-liquid systems, one point is of particular interest. It was found that three stable layers could be obtained easily when freshly purified ether was used, but that which has been kept some time, and liberated traces of iodine from a potassium iodide solution, caused a curious form of metastability, which is best illustrated by the following experiments. A liquid mixture was prepared containing 1.245 grams of potassium iodide, 11.067 grams of mercuric iodide, 9.447 grams of ether, and 19.440 grams of freshly purified ether. This gave three liquid layers which were perfectly stable at 20°. The same mixture, in the preparation of which only "pure" ether was used, gave only two stable layers at 20°. It was found, however, to prepare three metastable layers by gradually warming the mixture without agitation. Thus, the mixture existed as two stable layers at 10°,

101. CV.

TABLE VI.

The System: Ethyl Ether-Water-Potassium Iodide at 20°.

Three liquid layers with no solid phase

No.	Percentage composition of top layer.				Percentage composition of middle layer.				Percentage composition of bottom layer.			
	KI.	HgI ₂	Et ₂ O.	H ₂ O.	KI.	HgI ₂	Et ₂ O.	H ₂ O.	KI.	HgI ₂	Et ₂ O.	H ₂ O.
*57	2.1	0.2	88.3	3.4	16.7	30.8	23.4	29.1	16.7	30.8	23.4	29.1
†58	2.2	6.2	87.9	3.7	16.6	30.9	23.2	29.3	—	—	—	—
‡59	2.2	6.8	87.0	4.0	15.8	30.6	28.5	25.1	18.5	32.4	28.1	21.0
§60	2.3	6.8	86.7	4.2	14.3	29.4	33.3	23.0	—	—	—	—
¶61	—	—	—	—	13.2	30.1	37.7	19.0	20.3	33.6	42.1	14.0
‡62	2.7	7.7	85.4	4.2	13.1	28.7	38.7	19.5	20.5	32.5	42.1	14.0
§63	2.7	7.5	85.4	4.4	12.5	28.8	39.4	19.3	20.8	32.6	42.1	14.0
¶64	4.1	12.8	77.5	5.6	10.3	26.6	47.7	15.4	21.9	34.2	42.1	14.0
‡65	4.5	11.2	78.2	6.1	10.3	25.9	49.1	14.7	22.2	34.5	42.1	14.0
§66	5.8	16.6	68.9	8.7	8.8	21.9	58.0	11.3	22.4	35.9	42.1	14.0
¶67	6.0	16.8	69.2	8.0	8.7	21.6	58.6	11.1	23.0	34.7	42.1	14.0
§68	7.1	19.2	64.3	9.4	7.1	19.2	64.3	9.1	22.4	35.2	42.1	14.0

* In No. 57, the middle and bottom layers are identical, that is, the critical solution.

† Nos. 58 and 60 give the solutions left when the bottom layer has disappeared.

‡ No. 61 gives the solutions left when the top layer just disappears.

§ In No. 63, the top and middle layers are identical, that is, the critical solution.

Any solution represented by a point on *AB* is equilibrium solutions represented by points on *BC* and *CD* respectively; represents bottom, *BC* middle, and *CD* top layers. Only

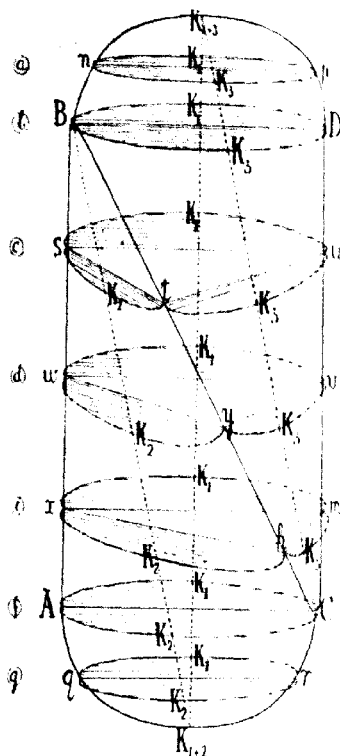
but gave rise to three layers when placed in the thermostat and was agitated. On shaking, however, the three layers, which were clearly seen immediately gave only two stable layers. It was further found that the amounts of the three metastable layers depended on the amount of water and temperature was raised without agitation. The same phenomena were also observed whenever a three-liquid mixture was prepared with ether which had been freshly purified.

It has not been found possible to investigate the matter further, the nature of the action of impure ether on the equilibrium existing between the layers is still in doubt. The effects observed, however, were under the influence of traces of impurity amounting to an almost negligible percentage of the mixture, and it appears probable that these traces of impurity affected the tension existing between two of the layers (the upper two in all cases) to such an extent as to render equilibrium between them impossible.

The ether used in the determinations was purified as follows: It was treated with dilute permanganate solution, slightly acidified with sulphuric acid, until the permanganate was no longer decolorised. It was then distilled and the anhydrous sodium carbonate for some days, when it was again distilled. A third distillation over anhydrous sodium carbonate completed the purification. The final product never produced metastability between three liquid layers.

atoms are lettered alike; thus 1*b*, 2*b*, and 3*b* are in equilibrium with one another. *A* and *C* represent two conjugate liquids, such as when *A* (the lower layer) moves along *AB*, *C* (the upper layer) rises to two layers, which move along *CB* and *CD* respectively, as indicated by the arrows. When the top layer (No. 3) reaches *D*,

FIG. 18.



atom (No. 1) and middle (No. 2) layers both reach *B*, where become identical, thus leaving only two layers, *B* and *D*, in equilibrium. This reaction is reversible. Starting with *B* and *D*, *B*, the upper layer, moves along *DC*, *D*, the lower layer, gives rise to two layers which move along *BA* and *BC* respectively.

When the bottom layer (No. 1) reaches *A*, the middle (No. 2) and top (No. 3) layers reach *C*, and become identical, leaving *A* and *C* in equilibrium. The changes may be represented thus

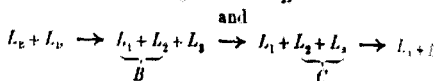
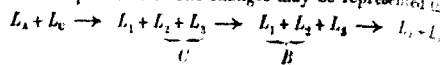


FIG. 19.

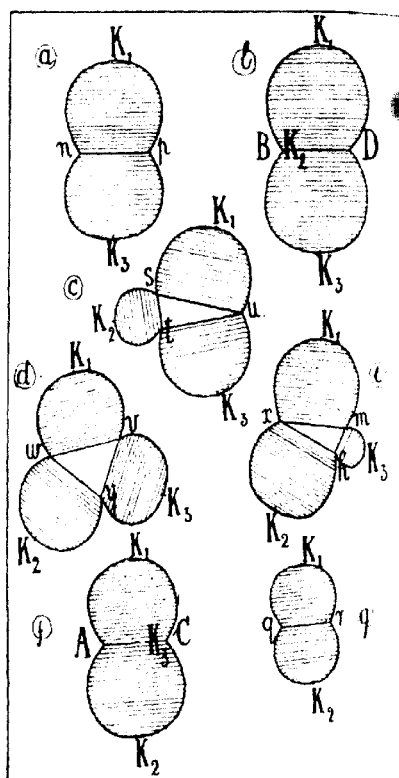
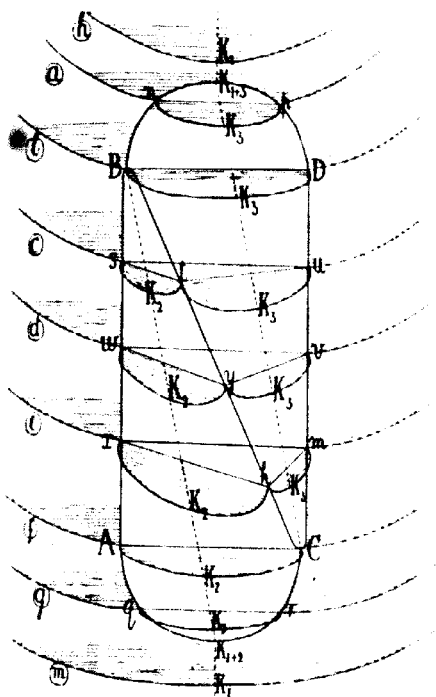


Fig. 18 shows a type of equilibrium in which the intersection of three binodal surfaces gives rise to three-liquid curves similar to those shown in Fig. 19.

as shown in Fig. 17. The three surfaces, the critical curves of which are lettered K_1 , K_2 , and K_3 respectively, intersect along AB , BC , and CD , which are lettered to correspond with Fig. 17. The diagram is best understood by studying a series of sections of the figure, which are shown in detail in Figs. 19a, 19b, 19c, 19d, 19e, and 19f. With regard to these, the following points

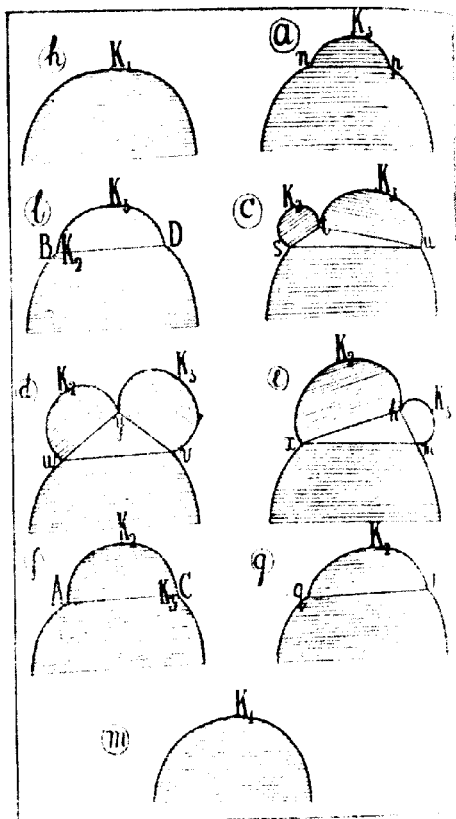
FIG. 20.



are mentioned. In Fig. 18 $BK_{1+2}D$ is the curve of intersection of the binodal surfaces, the critical curves of which meet at K_{1+2} . This is a section of the space enclosed by these two surfaces. A point on nK_1pK_2 represents a mixture of two conjugate liquids. Points on nK_1p represent mixtures of liquids on nK_1 and pK_2 respectively, lying on binodal surface 1, whilst those on nK_2p represent mixtures of liquids on nK_2 and pK_3 respectively, lying

on binodal surface 3. Section (b) differs from (a) in that E is a critical solution, from which arise liquids s and t of ρ_{max} . Sections c , d , and e show three-liquid areas, namely, st , st , and st respectively. In section (f) C is a critical solution

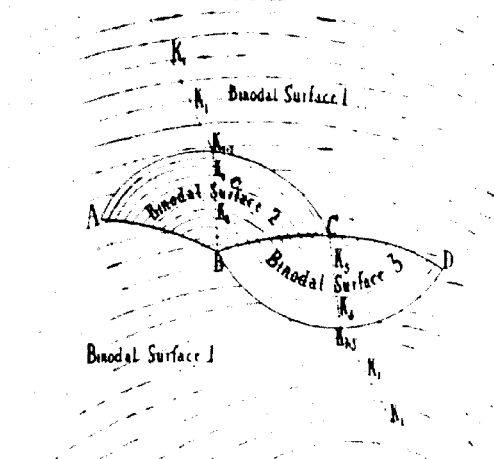
FIG. 21.



from w and h of (c), which have become identical. (g) is the same as (a), with the difference that binodal surface 3 has been replaced by binodal surface 2. The three-liquid volume terminates in lines BD and AC , and its general form is clear from sections (d), and (e).

In the system under consideration two of the intersecting "two-liquid volumes" are also intersected by side-planes of the tetrahedron or by solid saturation surfaces. The curves formed by these intersections have already been considered. There is no indication that the third "two-liquid volume" intersects either side-planes or solid saturation surfaces. Figs. 20 and 21 show modifications of Figs. 18 and 19, which agree more closely with the facts not mentioned. Only a portion of binodal surface 1 is shown, this corresponding with the surface $XNRSK, TUMYPK, Q$ of Figs. 11 and 14. The critical curve of this surface, lettered K_1 , terminates at the points K_1 and K_2 of Fig. 11. One of the other surfaces

FIG. 22.



as also to the curves cpd and fng of Fig. 11, which show that the plane is not intersected across its critical curve. These intersections are not shown in Figs. 20 and 21, the significance of which will be readily understood by reference to Figs. 18 and 19, to which they bear a close resemblance.

Fig. 22 shows the three binodal surfaces in positions which give rise to curves of intersection having the same relative positions as those of Fig. 17, and since it represents the actual equilibrium as nearly as it will be well to consider it in some detail. The letters correspond with those of the preceding figures, AB , BC , and CD representing the three curves of conjugate liquids. Surface 1, the part only is shown, corresponds with

$$XNRSK, TUMYPK, Q$$

of Figs. 11 and 14, and can be considered as lying in the plane of the paper. The stable portions of the two binodal surfaces intersecting it are shown by $AK_{1+2}CB$ (No. 2) and $BCDK_{1+3}$ (No. 1). AB is the curve of intersection of surfaces 1 and 2, BC that of surfaces 2 and 3, CD that of surfaces 3 and 1. AB and CD therefore lie on surface 1, that is, in the plane of the paper, while BC only touches it at its end-points, B and C . $AK_{1+2}C$ is the curve along which only surfaces 1 and 2 intersect, $BK_{1+3}D$ that along which only surfaces 1 and 3 intersect. They therefore lie on surface 1, and are both critical curves.

The parts into which the space enclosed by the binodal surfaces is divided are four in number, as follows:

(1) The two-liquid space representing mixtures of two conjugate liquids lying on surface 1. This is bounded by the binodal surface itself, and the surface $ABCD$, formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on AB and DC . It has already been defined as the space formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on a binodal surface.

(2) The two-liquid space representing mixtures of two conjugate liquids lying on surface 2. This is bounded by the binodal surface itself, $ABCK_{1+2}$, the surface $AK_{1+2}C$ formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on AK_{1+2} and CK_{1+2} , and the surface BC formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on AB and BC . The space is thus formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on the binodal surface.

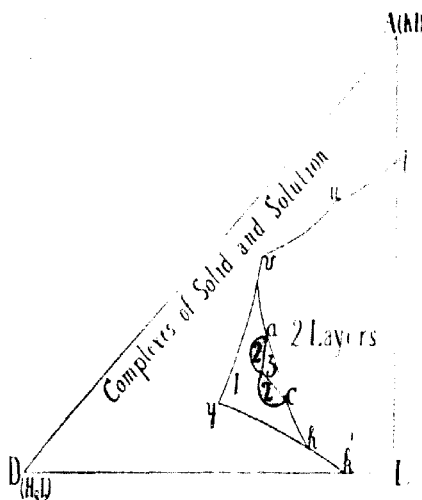
(3) The two-liquid space representing mixtures of two conjugate liquids lying on surface 3. This again is formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on the binodal surface. It is bounded by the binodal surface itself, together with the surface BCK_{1+3} formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on BK_{1+3} and DK_{1+3} , and the surface BCD formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on BC and DC .

(4) The three-liquid space, representing mixtures of three conjugate liquids lying on AB , BC , and CD respectively. This is bounded by the surface $ABCD$, formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on AB and DC ; the surface BCD formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on BC and DC ; and the surface ABC , formed by joining all pairs of conjugate points on AB and BC . The three-liquid space thus lies inside the surface formed by joining all sets of conjugate points on AB , BC , and CD .

A consideration of Fig. 22 shows that the triangular space formed by joining three conjugate points on AB , BC , and CD respectively are not parallel to one another. If a plane is drawn

as to intersect the three-liquid space, it may cut the three conjugate curves in points which are either conjugate or not conjugate with one another. The intersecting planes to be considered are those representing mixtures in which ether and water bear a constant ratio to one another, such as ADD in Fig. 11, and those parallel to one side of the tetrahedron, representing mixtures in a constant percentage of one particular component. Fig. 23 is a section formed by a plane such as ADD in Fig. 11, cutting through the three-liquid space and across the three conju-

FIG. 23.



gate curves at a , b , and c respectively. The section of the three-liquid space is shown on a larger scale in Fig. 24.

We will first consider the case in which a , b , and c are conjugate to one another. The significance of the areas into which $rKGG$ is divided will be clear from what has already been said with regard to the sections in Figs. 19 and 21. When a definite amount of the two solid components is added little by little to the pure mixture I , the mixture so formed follows a straight line on the plane ADD , such as $raypr$ in Fig. 24. As it moves along rp it separates into two layers into which it separates follow Ra and Gc respectively, so that when the mixture is represented by r the layers are represented by a and c . When the mixture moves from r along

by the points *a*, *b*, and *c*. The plane cuts across a number of conjugation triangles, so that as the mixture follows the line *abc* the three layers change, not only in amount, but in composition. Similarly, the compositions of the layers composing mixtures in the two-liquid areas are not given by points on the bounding lines.

A plane can intersect the three-liquid space in a variety of ways, giving rise to various special forms of sectional curves, such as these, and when the plane intersects the three-liquid space without meeting all three conjugate curves (*AB*, *BC*, and *CA*). The forms of these various sections can be readily determined, and will not be considered here.

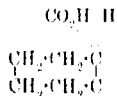
The author desires to acknowledge a grant from the Chemical Society towards the expenses of this research.

JOHN DEANE'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL,
NORTHWICH, CHESHIRE.

LVIII.—Resolution of *trans*-cyclopentane-1:2-dicarboxylic Acid.

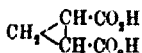
By LEONARD JAMES GOLDSWORTHY and WILLIAM HENRY PERKIN, jun.

According to the theory of Le Bel and van't Hoff, many of the dicarboxylic acids of the cyclic hydrocarbons should be capable of resolution into optically active modifications. Hitherto, no acids of this type have been investigated in this respect, the first to be resolved was *trans*-hexahydrophthalic acid:



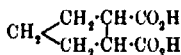
In 1920, Werner and Conrad (*Ber.*, **32**, 3069) showed that this racially compensated acid may be resolved into its active modifications by the fractional crystallisation of the quinine salts, and the active acids were found to have α_D^{20} +18.2° and -18.5° respectively. These investigators also showed that, whilst the optically compensated acid is almost insoluble in water and melts

at 215° , the *d*- and *l*-modifications melt at 179° – 183° , much more soluble; again, the anhydrides of the active acids melt at 164° , or considerably higher than that of the *dl*-acid, which melts at 140° . Furthermore, the conversion of the acids to their anhydrides is attended by a reversal and at the same time a considerable increase of the rotation, since the *d*-acid yields an anhydride with $\alpha_D -76.7^{\circ}$; the dimethyl esters have the same sign as their acids and the rotations $\alpha_D +28.6^{\circ}$ and $+28.1^{\circ}$ respectively. At a later date (*Ber.*, 1905, **38**, 3112; *Ber.*, 1906, 1000) von der Heide investigated *trans*-cyclopropane-1,2-dicarboxylic acid,



and showed that this acid can be resolved into its active components by the fractional crystallisation of the salts with brucine, quinine, or cinchonidine. The active acids melt at 175° , that is, at the same temperature as the *dl*-acid, and have $\alpha_D +24.1^{\circ}$. Attempts to prepare the anhydrides of these acids have been unsuccessful, since they distil unchanged and are not acted on by acetyl chloride.

Some years ago, a series of experiments was commenced in the Laboratories of Manchester University by one of us in conjunction with Mr. H. D. Gardner with the object of effecting the resolution of *trans*-cyclopentane-1:2-dicarboxylic acid,



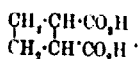
(Perkin, T., 1887, **51**, 244), but the investigation was not completed.

We have now taken up the subject again and find that resolution may be readily and completely brought about with the aid of brucine.

When the *dl*-acid is combined with brucine and the mixture is recrystallised from water, the salt of the *d*-acid separates and is readily obtained pure by repeated recrystallisation. The *l*-acid may then be recovered from the mother liquors in the manner described on p. 2643. The observed rotations of the *d*- and *l*-modifications were $\alpha_D +87.6$ and -85.9 respectively, and those of the corresponding ethyl esters, $\alpha_D +70.31^{\circ}$ and -69.72° . The *d*- and *l*-modifications of cyclopentane-1:2-dicarboxylic acid melt at 181° or 21° higher than the melting point of the *dl*-modification (m. p. 160°). For the sake of ready comparison, the rotations and melting points of the *trans*-cyclopropane-, cyclopentane-, and cyclohexane-1:2-dicarboxylic acids are appended in tabular form.

	α_D <i>d</i> acid.	α_D <i>l</i> acid.	M. p. of <i>d</i> - and <i>l</i> - acids.	M. p. of inactive acid.
<i>cyclo</i> Propane- 1:2dicarboxylic acid	+84.9°	-84.5	175	175°
<i>cyclo</i> Pentane- 1:2dicarboxylic acid	+87.6	-85.9	181	160°
<i>cyclo</i> Hexane- 1:2dicarboxylic acid	+18.2°	-18.5	178-183°	215°

would be interesting to fill up the gap between *transcyclopentane* 1:2dicarboxylic acid and the corresponding *cyclopentane*-1:2dicarboxylic acid by the resolution of *transcyclobutane* 1:2dicarboxylic acid,



Unfortunately, the preparation of this acid (T., 1894, **65**, 585) in quantity sufficient for resolution is most troublesome and, though experiments with this object have been commenced, we have not yet been able to separate the active modifications in a pure state.

EXPERIMENTAL.

d-transcyclopentane 1:2dicarboxylic Acid.

The *alltranscyclopentane* 1:2dicarboxylic acid employed in these experiments was prepared by the method described by Perkin (1897, **51**, 240; compare T., 1894, **75**, 586). The pure acid, quantities of 15 grams, dissolved in hot water, was mechanically mixed and brucine (90 grams) gradually added, when the alkaloid was dissolved. The excess of brucine was filtered off, well washed with hot water, and the filtrate and washings were concentrated on the water-bath until crystals just commenced to form on the surface. When the liquid was cooled and vigorously stirred, copious crystallisation took place, and the whole became semi-solid; the crystals were then collected and repeatedly recrystallised in hot water. During this operation, the progress of the separation of the brucine salt of the *d*-acid from that of the *l*-modification was followed with the polarimeter, and the table given below shows that the separation is nearly complete after six crystallisations, since the difference between the rotation of this crop and that obtained as the result of the twelfth crystallisation is very small.

No. of crystallisation.	Weight of substance. Gram.	Observed rotation.	Specific rotation.
1st crop	0.5250	-1.68°	-32.1°
2d ..	0.4566	-1.14°	-25.0°
6th ..	0.5050	-1.15°	-22.8°
12th ..	0.2612	-0.51°	-19.9°

A specimen of the pure brucine salt was subsequently prepared by adding excess of brucine to the hot dilute aqueous solution of the pure *d*-acid (see below), and, after filtering, the solution was allowed to crystallise slowly over sulphuric acid, when large brilliant, tabular crystals separated. As these crystals were dried in a vacuum desiccator, they were dried by exposure to air, and then analysed:

0.1314 gave 0.2782 CO_2 and 0.0859 H_2O . $\text{C}=57.7$; $\text{H}=7.2$
 0.5079 .. 22.6 c.c. N_2 at 19.8° and 753 mm. $\text{N}=7.1$
 $2\text{C}_{23}\text{H}_{25}\text{O}_4\text{N}_2\cdot\text{C}_7\text{H}_9\text{O}_4\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ requires $\text{C}=57.4$; $\text{H}=7.1$; $\text{N}=7.1$
 per cent.

That the salt has this composition was confirmed by analysis, that 0.2316 gram, heated for one hour at 125° , lost 0.0339 g., whereas the calculated loss for $9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ is 0.0339 gram.

In order to obtain the pure *d*-acid, the brucine salt from the twelfth crystallisation was dissolved in hot water, the acid precipitated by ammonia and, after filtering and washing, a solution of the ammonium salt was concentrated and mixed with hydrochloric acid when, on cooling, the *d*-acid separated in plates, and melted at $178\text{--}180^\circ$. After completely boiling with the aid of animal charcoal, and twice crystallising from water, the acid melted at 181° , and 0.1752 dissolved in 20 c.c. (20 c.c.) gave, in a 2-dm. tube, a rotation of $[\alpha]_D^{20} = +153^\circ$, $\alpha_D^{20} = 87.6^\circ$. On titration, 0.1778 required 0.0898 NaOH neutralisation, whereas this amount of an acid, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5(\text{CO})_2$ should neutralise 0.0909 NaOH .

The *d*-ethyl ester, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2$, was prepared by heating *d*-acid with five times its weight of 10 per cent. alcoholic ethyl acid for six hours; water was then added, the ester extracted with ether, and, after washing with water and dilute sodium carbonate, the ethereal solution was dried, evaporated, and the ester removed under diminished pressure.

It boiled constantly at $170^\circ/100$ mm., and 0.2596 *d*-ester in acetone (20 c.c.), gave, in a 2-dm. tube, a rotation of $[\alpha]_D^{20} = +11^\circ$, whence $\alpha_D^{20} = 70.31^\circ$.

The *d*-Anilide, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5(\text{CO}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_2$. In order to prepare this derivative, the *d*-acid was heated with thionyl chloride in a test tube in boiling water for an hour, the clear liquid evaporated on the water-bath, and the residual acid chloride dissolved in benzene and mixed with excess of aniline. The benzene was removed by evaporation, the residue stirred with dilute hydrochloric acid, and the crystalline precipitate collected and recrystallised twice from

ethyl alcohol, in which it is sparingly soluble, separating as a continuous mass of needles melting at $245-247^{\circ}$ (uncorr.).

0.2756 gave 21.7 c.c. N_2 at 18.4° and 762 mm. $N = 9.1$.

$C_{10}H_{16}O_4$ requires $N = 9.1$ per cent.

0.1005 dissolved in acetone (20 c.c.), gave, in a 2-dm. tube, a rotation $+1.880^{\circ}$, whence $\alpha_D = +110.1^{\circ}$.

Attempts which were made with the object of preparing the anhydride of the *d-trans* acid were not successful and the results obtained seem to throw some doubt on the existence of this anhydride. Since, however, *trans*-cyclohexane-1:2 dicarboxylic acid (cyclohexanhydophthalic acid) yields an anhydride without difficulty (Bayer, *Annalen*, 1890, **258**, 1791), there is every reason to suppose that the anhydride of *trans*-cyclopentane-1:2 dicarboxylic acid should also be capable of existence, but it is doubtful whether the substance described by Haworth and Perkin (*T.*, 1894, **5**, 785) can be accepted as this anhydride.

trans-cyclopentane-1:2-dicarboxylic Acid.

In order to obtain this acid, the mother liquors from the first crystallisations of the brucine salt of the *d*-acid (p. 2641) were concentrated until crystals began to appear on the surface of the remaining liquid. The salt, which separated in quantity on cooling, was dissolved in hot water, the solution decolorised with animal charcoal, and the crude *l*-acid isolated in the manner described in the case of the *d*-acid.

The acid is readily obtained pure simply by recrystallising four or five times from water, it then melted sharply at $180-181^{\circ}$ and 0.2363, dissolved in water (20 c.c.), gave, in a 2-dm. tube, a rotation of -1.3° , whence $\alpha_D = -85.9^{\circ}$. On titration, 0.3110 required 0.1568 $NaOH$ for neutralisation, whereas this amount of an acid, $H_2(CO_2H)_2$, should neutralise 0.1575 $NaOH$.

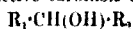
The *l*-ethyl ester, $C_5H_8(CO_2Et)_2$, obtained in the manner described in detail in the case of the ester of the *d*-acid, distilled at 6.5 mm., and 0.3326, dissolved in acetone (20 c.c.), gave, in a 2-dm. tube, a rotation of -2.32° , whence $\alpha_D = -69.76^{\circ}$.

THE UNIVERSITY MUSEUM,
OXFORD.

CCXLVIII.—*Investigations on the Dependence of
Rotatory Power on Chemical Constitution. Part
IX. The Rotatory Powers of 1-Naphthyl- β -carbinol
and its Esters.*

By JOSEPH KENYON and ROBERT HOWSON PICKARD

THIRTY EIGHT optically active carbinols of the formula



have been described so far in this series of investigations, and, with one exception have been shown to possess certain characteristic properties regards dispersive power. Thus their rotatory powers for light of wave length ranging from that of sodium yellow to that of deep violet not only increase continuously with decreasing wave length (that is, the compounds exhibit what is commonly spoken of as *normal* dispersive power), but also conform to the law of dispersion expressed by Drude's equation with one term $\alpha = k/\lambda^2 - \lambda_0^2$ (compare Lowry, Pickard, and Kenyon, *ibid.*, p. 94). Further, a dispersion ratio, such as, for example, $H_{\text{green}}^{\text{violet}}$, is in the cases of many of the carbinols approximately constant over a range of temperature extending up to their boiling points, and even in the others varies only to a very slight extent, whilst the dispersion ratio is only affected to a very slight extent by solvents. It is probable, however, that this is a special property of this class of compounds, the rotatory powers of which are not affected to any large extent by increase of temperature or change of solvent. Indeed, on reference to the "characteristic diagrams" (for example see Part V., this vol., p. 847) for a homologous series of carbinols these properties appear as an obvious arithmetical fact, since the violet and green lines of the diagrams intersect so near to the zero. It should, however, be borne in mind that the method of plotting rotation data known as "characteristic diagrams" developed by the present authors for the correlation of the rotation data of many compounds of allied structure—whilst proved extremely useful in several directions—is, however, largely empirical, having been devised originally on theoretical grounds by Armstrong and Walker (*Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1913, [1], 88, 300) in aid in the explanation of the *anomalous* dispersion of a compound by assuming the presence in it of two dynamic isomers with different optical properties.

It also seems desirable to suggest that inferences drawn from

variations in the magnitude of a dispersion ratio are likely to prove misleading, whilst the use of negative and positive signs for such cases in the region of what is commonly known as anomalous dispersion has apparently no meaning whatever.

Among the carbinols referred to above the conspicuous exception is *d*-1-naphthylmethylcarbinol (Part VI, this vol., p. 1116). The rotations of this compound appear to obey the law of simple dispersion only at temperatures above 160° , whilst in the supercooled state the carbinol exhibits the phenomenon known as anomalous dispersion at and below a temperature of about 10° . So extraordinary, then, are the optical properties of this carbinol that it seemed desirable to investigate some of its homologues, but owing to the many experimental difficulties only *d*-1-naphthyl-*n*-hexylcarbinol has been prepared.

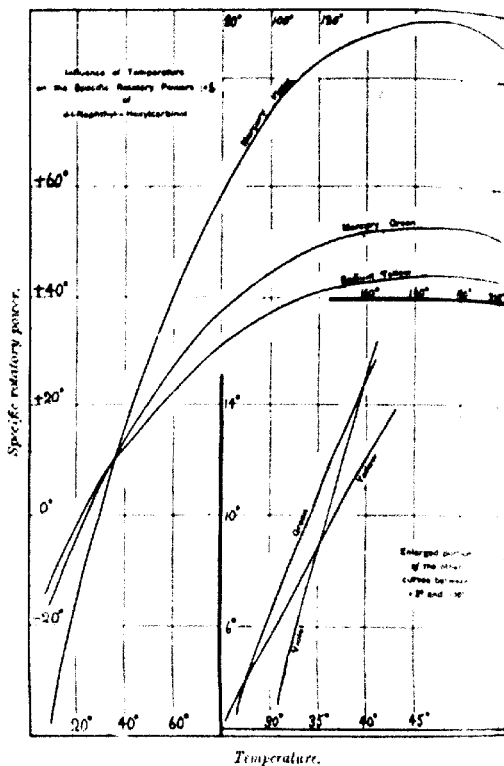
The properties of the new carbinol are quite analogous to those of the corresponding methyl compound. Thus in the homogeneous case (see Fig. 1 and table I) the dispersion is "anomalous" (for blue to violet light) at temperatures between about 22° and 38° , while the rotations conform to the law of simple dispersion at about and above a temperature of 180° . The regular character of the rotation curves seems to negative any suggestion that the anomalous dispersion is due specially to polymerisation in the neighbourhood of the melting point of the carbinol, although they show that the cause of the "anomaly" is gradually removed by increase of temperature.

The majority of chemists appear to favour the explanation of anomalous dispersion in compounds of simple constitution by the action of the presence in what is otherwise the homogeneous compound of two dynamic isomerides differing in optical sign and refractive power. It has been suggested already (Part VI, *loc. cit.*) that in the case of these naphthylcarbinols such isomerides are caused by a difference in the disposition of the valencies in the naphthyl radicle. An alternative suggestion made by Patterson (1913, 103, 145) that this phenomenon is due to a succession of maxima and minima on the rotation curves occurring at different temperatures for light of various refrangibilities, whilst very difficult of direct experimental test, is nevertheless rendered very useful in the authors' opinion by the accumulation of data obtained in these investigations.

It has now been shown that the presence in an optically active compound of a naphthyl group attached at the " α "-position or a esterified carboxylic group is associated very frequently with the phenomenon of anomalous dispersion. In each case temperature

ture has a great effect on the phenomenon, increase of temperature destroying it in the case of naphthyl compounds, but bringing it to view in the case of the esters. It is desirable, however, that the term "anomalous" dispersion should no longer be used. Please

FIG. 1.



of the rotation curves on either side of the region of "anomalous" dispersion have dispersion ratios which rapidly increase or decrease. "Anomalous" dispersion as commonly understood refers as a term merely to portions of the rotation curves artificially selected according to the wave-lengths of light under consideration. In view

Levy's work (T., 1913, 103, 1067 *et seq.*) it is much better to use only the terms *simple* and *complex* as applied to dispersive power according as the rotations conform to Drude's equation with one or more terms.

Among the large number of compounds studied in these investigations the 1-naphthylcarbinols at low temperatures and the esters described in the authors' previous communications at high temperatures tend, then, to exhibit *complex* dispersive power, the dispersive power becoming *simple* in each case if the conditions of temperature are reversed.

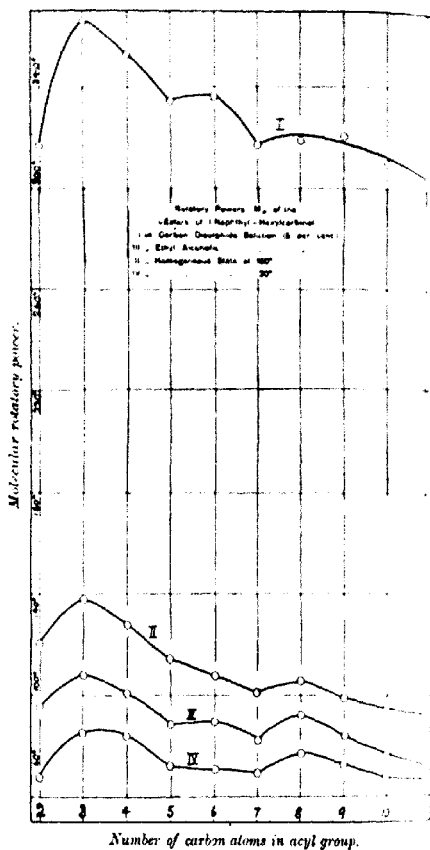
These generalisations* are confirmed by the optical properties of the esters of the two naphthyl carbinols with normal fatty acids, where it has been found that the acetate of 1-1-naphthylmethyl-actanol and a homologous series of esters (ranging from the acetate to the *n*-undecanoate) of *d*-1-naphthyl-*n*-hexylcarbinol each exhibits *complex* dispersive power at all temperatures from 20° to 200°, the limits of the experimental conditions. The dispersion ratios for these esters are not affected much by temperature, and are nearly constant throughout the series. This is noteworthy, not only for the exceptions, but also as occurring in a series all members of which have *complex* dispersions. The dispersion ratios of each ester, however, are about 5 per cent. greater in carbon disulphide solutions than in the homogeneous state.

The configurations ascribed to 1-1-naphthylmethylcarbinol and 1-naphthyl-*n*-hexylcarbinol, although these compounds and some of their derivatives are under certain conditions dextro- and levatory respectively, are justified by drawing the characteristic diagram for each carbinol, when it will be found that the two diagrams form exact mirror images of one another. As has been already mentioned, such diagrams are based on the assumption of the presence in the carbinols of two dynamic isomerides differing in optical sign and dispersive power, but in the case of the esters of these carbinols there may be assumed to be present four dynamic isomerides in each ester. It is therefore not surprising that the rotation data for the esters recorded in the experimental part cannot be correlated on the characteristic diagrams of the carbinols, although these four dynamic isomerides would in pairs have the same optical sign.

The authors are aware that many of the generalisations stated in this and the other papers of the series are open to the criticism that the same are based on rotation readings of small magnitude. However, they feel that the concordance of results which have now been obtained for a very large number of compounds justifies the generalisations.

The trend of the values of the molecular rotatory powers of the members of this series of esters is dissimilar to those of the series

FIG. 2.



series of esters described in these investigations. Thus it will be seen from Fig. 2 that the curves connecting molecular weight and molecular rotatory power determined under several conditions

temperature and solution show maxima at the propionate and valerate in addition to the maximum so commonly exhibited at the

FIG. 3.



octate (or valerate). This somewhat irregular result is perhaps as surprising in a series of esters of such complexity, that is, as compared to the esters previously described, which have been those

of carbinols of simple structure (compare, however, Part III, 7, 1912, 101, 1430). To explain this is difficult, but it is significant that the maxima at the propionate and octoate follow one another at points in the series in the interval between which the chain has grown by five carbon atoms, that is to say, at the octoate the growing chain may be assumed to have all but returned to the position occupied by it in the propionate. It is, however, possible that the mass of the growing chain as it approaches (or just exceeds) that of one of the other groups (for example, the hexyl or naphthyl group) may have an additional effect on the molecular rotatory power and cause some special exaltation.

In Fig. 3 the effect of temperature on the rotatory powers of the esters is illustrated. In general this effect (within the experimental limits) is a common one on all the members of the series, although there is a significant change of slope in the curve for the octoate.

TABLE I.

d-1-Naphthyl-*n*-hexylcarbinol.

Temperature.	D_D^{20}	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	$[\alpha]_D^{25}$	$[\alpha]_D^{30}$	$[M]_D^{20}$	$[M]_D^{25}$	$[M]_D^{30}$	η_{sp}/c
10°	1.0310	-11.26°	-14.89°	-40.25°	-27.24°	-36.03°	-97.40	1.74
20	1.0232	-1.51	-2.05	-12.75	-3.66	-4.97	-30.85	1.10
40	1.0075	+12.46	+13.85	+16.92	+30.15	+33.52	+40.96	1.22
60	0.9911	23.29	26.89	40.41	56.35	65.07	97.79	1.41
80	0.9754	31.22	37.47	58.95	75.54	90.67	142.7	1.75
100	0.9600	37.50	44.37	72.95	90.74	107.4	176.5	1.94
120	0.9444	41.03	48.78	82.58	99.28	118.0	199.8	1.97
140	0.9285	42.71	51.34	87.26	103.4	124.3	211.2	1.98
160	0.9129	43.82	52.86	89.82	106.0	127.9	217.4	1.96
180	0.8970	44.13	53.67	90.86	106.8	129.9	219.9	1.96
200	0.8813	42.62	51.06	86.26	103.0	123.6	208.6	1.96

TABLE II.
Acetate of d,l-Naphthyl n-hexylcarbinol.

Temper- ature.	D _t .	[α] _D ²⁰ +23.85°	[α] _D ²⁵ +25.05°	[α] _D ³⁰ +28.08°	[α] _D ³⁵ +53.16°	[M] _D ²⁰ +67.74°	[M] _D ²⁵ +71.15°	[M] _D ³⁰ +81.45°	[M] _D ³⁵ +151.0°	Dispersion ratios.	
										H _D ²⁰ ₂₅	H _D ²⁰ ₃₅
20°	1.0262	28.15	29.66	34.07	63.16	80.05	83.93	96.67	179.4	1.148	1.854
40	1.0110	32.12	33.60	38.73	71.58	91.22	96.13	110.0	203.2	1.153	1.854
60	0.9947	35.10	36.59	42.48	79.18	99.68	104.7	120.6	224.9	1.154	1.848
80	0.9785	37.75	39.51	45.50	84.78	107.2	112.2	128.2	240.7	1.153	1.866
100	0.9624	39.64	41.78	48.09	89.41	112.6	118.7	136.6	253.9	1.154	1.859
120	0.9460	41.20	43.44	50.03	93.07	117.0	123.4	142.1	264.3	1.158	1.860
140	0.9300	42.35	44.42	51.39	95.45	120.2	126.2	145.9	271.1	1.157	1.858
160	0.9139	43.10	44.32	51.84	97.12	122.4	127.3	147.2	275.2	1.155	1.868
180	0.8979	43.34	44.34	51.40	97.90	123.1	127.4	145.6	278.1	1.153	1.903
200	0.8815										
<i>Propionate.</i>											
20°	1.0147	28.50°	30.18°	34.69°	64.30°	85.17°	89.93°	103.4°	191.5°	1.149	1.856
40	1.0002	33.93	34.43	39.94	74.03	98.11	102.6	119.1	220.6	1.160	1.854
60	0.9850	36.65	38.13	44.39	83.91	109.2	113.8	132.3	247.4	1.162	1.869
80	0.9692	39.62	41.28	47.92	89.76	118.0	123.0	142.4	267.5	1.161	1.874
100	0.9521	42.07	43.96	50.76	95.54	125.4	131.0	151.2	284.7	1.154	1.882
120	0.9339	43.82	45.73	52.91	99.49	130.6	136.2	157.7	296.2	1.157	1.878
140	0.9150	45.17	47.20	54.70	102.7	134.6	140.6	163.0	305.9	1.159	1.878
160	0.8961	46.24	48.35	56.19	105.1	137.8	144.1	167.4	313.1	1.162	1.869
180	0.8778	47.08	49.12	57.03	107.0	140.3	146.4	169.9	318.4	1.161	1.876
200	0.8595	47.75	49.71	57.51	108.1	142.3	148.1	171.4	322.2	1.157	1.876

TABLE II (continued).
n-Butyrate.

Temperature.	D_1^*	$[a]_D^*$	$[a]_D^t$	$[a]_D^t$	$[a]_D^t$	$[M]_D^t$	$[M]_D^t$	$[M]_D^t$	$[M]_D^t$	Hg ^{corrected}	Dispersion ratios
20°	1.0050	+ 27.23	38.16	+ 32.54 ²	+ 60.22 ²	.. 84.20 ²	.. 87.88 ²	+ 101.5 ²	.. 187.9 ²	1.155	1.850
40°	0.9869	30.71	32.15	37.16	69.34	95.83	100.3	116.0	210.4	1.156	1.864
60°	0.9741	33.71	35.44	41.00	76.68	105.2	110.6	127.9	238.2	1.157	1.871
80°	0.9587	36.92	37.86	44.11	81.93	112.4	118.1	137.6	255.7	1.163	1.884
100°	0.9387	37.87	39.77	46.15	86.24	118.1	124.1	144.0	269.1	1.161	1.868
120°	0.9431	38.13	41.22	47.69	89.02	122.1	128.6	148.8	277.7	1.157	1.871
140°	0.9273	40.17	42.27	48.84	91.49	125.3	131.9	152.7	286.5	1.168	1.869
160°	0.9057	41.04	43.71	49.82	93.42	128.0	134.5	155.4	291.5	1.153	1.875
180°	0.8800	41.66	43.75	50.46	94.58	130.0	136.6	157.4	296.1	1.153	1.875
200°	0.8043	42.01	44.10	50.71	94.99	131.6	137.6	158.2	296.4	1.150	1.874

m-Valerate.

20°	0.9074	+ 22.23°	+ 23.30°	+ 26.73°	+ 49.45°	+ 72.47°	+ 75.96°	+ 87.14°	+ 131.2°	1.830
20°	0.9816	25.42	26.65	30.71	57.68	83.85	89.86	100.1	133.0	1.874
20°	0.9816	25.42	26.65	30.71	57.68	83.85	89.86	100.1	133.0	1.874
40°	0.9080	28.19	29.53	34.09	61.30	91.89	98.27	116.8	153.3	1.874
40°	0.9080	28.19	29.53	34.09	61.30	91.89	98.27	116.8	153.3	1.874
60°	0.9504	30.47	31.84	36.74	69.00	104.9	113.4	126.8	164.8	1.874
60°	0.9504	30.47	31.84	36.74	69.00	104.9	113.4	126.8	164.8	1.874
80°	0.9348	32.18	33.67	38.59	72.09	108.9	116.7	132.1	187.2	1.874
80°	0.9348	32.18	33.67	38.59	72.09	108.9	116.7	132.1	187.2	1.874
100°	0.9191	33.47	35.10	40.52	73.78	112.5	119.8	136.0	194.6	1.874
100°	0.9191	33.47	35.10	40.52	73.78	112.5	119.8	136.0	194.6	1.874
120°	0.9035	34.45	36.38	42.24	75.00	114.5	121.8	139.1	202.5	1.874
120°	0.9035	34.45	36.38	42.24	75.00	114.5	121.8	139.1	202.5	1.874
140°	0.8717	35.51	37.15	43.04	76.52	116.3	123.1	140.3	208.3	1.874
140°	0.8717	35.51	37.15	43.04	76.52	116.3	123.1	140.3	208.3	1.874
160°	0.8259	36.60	37.83	43.94	78.22	118.0	124.1	141.3	214.4	1.874
160°	0.8259	36.60	37.83	43.94	78.22	118.0	124.1	141.3	214.4	1.874

TABLE II (continued).
n-Octoate.

Temperature.	I ₁ .	[α] _D ²⁰ .	[α] _D ¹⁵ .	[α] _D ¹⁰ .	[α] _D ⁵ .	[M] _D ²⁰ .	[M] _D ¹⁵ .	[M] _D ¹⁰ .	[M] _D ⁵ .	Dispersion ratios.
										Hg _{green} ²⁰ . Hg _{red} ²⁰ .
20°	0.9797	+21.13°	+22.11°	+23.46°	+47.56°	+77.75°	+81.36°	+93.67°	+175.0°	1.153 1.868
40	0.9650	23.44	24.67	28.39	53.27	86.26	90.76	104.4	196.0	1.151 1.877
60	0.9505	25.23	26.57	30.61	57.44	92.85	97.77	112.7	211.3	1.152 1.882
80	0.9357	26.44	27.93	32.15	60.49	97.29	102.8	118.2	222.6	1.151 1.879
100	0.9210	27.36	28.85	33.19	62.38	100.7	106.2	122.1	229.6	1.150 1.876
120	0.9060	28.05	29.47	33.91	63.57	103.2	108.4	124.8	234.0	1.151 1.876
140	0.8913	28.49	29.88	34.44	64.63	104.8	110.0	126.8	237.8	1.153 1.867
160	0.8766	28.75	30.14	34.81	65.69	106.8	110.9	128.1	241.7	1.155 1.867
180	0.8617	28.89	30.34	35.03	66.70	106.3	111.6	128.9	245.4	1.154 1.904

n-Nonoate.

Temperature.	I ₁ .	[α] _D ²⁰ .	[α] _D ¹⁵ .	[α] _D ¹⁰ .	[α] _D ⁵ .	[M] _D ²⁰ .	[M] _D ¹⁵ .	[M] _D ¹⁰ .	[M] _D ⁵ .	Dispersion ratios.
										Hg _{green} ²⁰ . Hg _{red} ²⁰ .
20°	0.9726	+19.06°	+19.88°	+22.88°	—	+73.85°	+75.19°	+87.40°	—	1.162 —
40	0.9576	21.25	21.82	25.22	—	81.19	83.37	96.34	—	1.155 —
60	0.9425	22.80	23.45	27.16	—	87.10	89.58	103.8	—	1.158 —
80	0.9276	23.82	24.61	28.52	—	91.01	94.01	109.0	—	1.159 —
100	0.9126	24.57	25.46	29.58	—	93.85	97.27	113.0	—	1.161 —
120	0.8977	25.15	26.22	30.42	—	96.07	100.2	116.2	—	1.160 —
140	0.8830	25.60	26.77	30.99	—	97.72	102.3	118.4	—	1.158 —
160	0.8678	25.88	27.05	31.34	—	98.88	103.3	119.8	—	1.159 —
180	0.8529	26.03	27.14	31.44	—	99.45	103.7	120.2	—	1.160 —

TABLE II (continued).
n-Decoate.

[illegible]

n-Undecane.

20°	+ 16.44°	+ 17.08°	+ 19.76°	+ 67.39°	+ 70.01°	+ 81.04°	1.157
40	0.9014	18.17	18.79	74.47	90.07	96.43	1.169
60	0.9468	19.63	20.24	80.48	82.99	90.31	1.164
80	0.9323	20.29	21.29	84.65	87.32	96.31	1.137
100	0.9179	21.05	22.04	87.54	90.36	102.6	1.126
120	0.9031	21.35	22.48	89.32	92.17	104.7	1.137
140	0.8885	21.78	22.48	89.32	92.17	104.7	1.137

EXPERIMENTAL.

dl-1-Naphthyl-n-hexylcarbinol,
 $C_{10}H_7\cdot CH(OH)\cdot CH_2\cdot CH_2\cdot CH_2\cdot CH_2\cdot CH_2\cdot CH_3$.

The reaction between magnesium 1-naphthyl bromide and *n*-heptaldehyde proceeds smoothly only under certain conditions. The naphthyl bromide should be free from the dibromide commonly present in the commercial product, and the aldehyde should be freshly distilled. The aldehyde, dissolved in ten times its volume of ether, should be added very slowly to an excess of a dilute alcohol solution of the bromide, which is at the time reacting with a slightly less than the calculated amount of magnesium, the temperature of the whole being kept at that of a mixture of ice and salt. The products of the reaction should be poured on to a mixture of ice and dilute sulphuric acid as soon as the addition of the aldehyde solution is complete, and then immediately extracted with ether. Much naphthalene being formed in the reaction it is desirable to remove it along with the ether and unchanged aldehyde by distillation in a current of steam. The residue is then dissolved in ether, carefully dried, and fractionally distilled under a pressure of 3 mm. All the carbinol is in the portion boiling above 160°, whilst the lower fractions contain the corresponding unsaturated hydrocarbon and the unchanged naphthyl bromide. In one series of operations, working with 620 grams of bromide and 228 grams of *n*-heptaldehyde, the yield of carbinol was 370 grams.

dl-1-Naphthyl-n-hexylcarbinol boils at 184°/4 mm., and on keeping sets to a crystalline mass, which crystallises from light petroleum in feathery needles melting at 41–42°. When guarded from the accidental access of crystal nuclei, it will remain for some time in a supercooled condition, but solidifies rapidly when seeded.

The *hydrogen phthalate*, prepared by the method described in Part IV. (*loc. cit.*, p. 1126), is only sparingly soluble in light petroleum, and is best crystallised from a mixture of this and benzene, from which it separates in slender needles melting at 1–104°.

100.45 neutralised 0.0226 NaOH. M.W. = 397. Calc. M.W. 390.

Resolution of Hydrogen Phthalate.

The fractional crystallisation from acetone of the brucine salts of the (*d+l*) phthalic ester yields readily the salt of the *d* ester, the process being carried out in the manner previously described in detail (see *inter alia*, T., 1912, 101, 634). The ester (514 grams)

was dissolved in warm acetone (1½ litres), digested with bromine (614 grams), and set aside to crystallise. The first crop weighed 300 grams, and was then recrystallised six times. The second crop weighed 160 grams, and was the pure *l*-BdA salt, which melts and decomposes at 124–125°. Two successive series of operations with the mother liquors comprising respectively eight and ten crystallisations yielded further lots of the salt amounting to 64 and 15 grams respectively. Samples of the salt from the fifth and seventh crops of the first series of crystallisations and from the final crops of the second and third series yielded hydrogen phthalates which had respectively $[\alpha]_D -23.01^\circ$, -22.46° , -22.12° , and -22.62° respectively in (approximately) 5 per cent. ethyl alcohol solution.

d-1-Naphthyl-*n*-hexylcarbinol boils at 178°/3 mm., solidifies in stellate nodules, and melts at 41.5°.

The corresponding *d*-hydrogen phthalate solidifies in crystalline nodules, melts at 91°, and is soluble in all the common organic media. The crystalline sodium salt, which was obtained by neutralisation of a solution of the ester in methyl alcohol with sodium methoxide and subsequent removal of the solvent in a vacuum, is decomposed by water.

Normal Esters of the Carbinol.—Of the esters prepared (see table IV) the acetate, propionate, and *n*-butyrate were obtained by the interaction of the carbinol and the respective anhydrides, and the others were prepared by the action of the respective acid chlorides on solutions of the carbinol in pyridine. They are all viscous liquids at the ordinary temperature, and have no odor, the higher members of the series often develop a faint pink bloom, which is difficult to remove by redistillation, thus rendering uncertain any polarimetric readings in the green, and particularly in the violet portions of the spectrum.

TABLE IV.

Esters of d-1-Naphthyl-*n*-hexylcarbinol.

	B. p.	D_4^{20}	n_D^{20}	$(n-1)/d.M.$	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	M_n
Acetate	167°/2.5 mm.	1.0262	1.5471	151.3	+23.85	162
Propionate ...	169°/2 "	1.0147	1.5403	158.7	26.59	198
<i>n</i> -Butyrate ...	164°/3 "	1.0050	1.5365	166.6	27.02	226
<i>n</i> -Valerate ...	187°/2.5 "	0.9974	1.5332	174.3	22.23	254
<i>n</i> -Hexoate ...	198°/2.5 "	0.9894	1.5289	181.8	21.12	282
<i>n</i> -Heptoate ...	207°/3 "	0.9830	1.5271	189.8	19.65	310
<i>n</i> -Octoate	214°/3 "	0.9797	1.5249	197.1	21.13	338
<i>n</i> -Nonoate	222°/4 "	0.9726	1.5225	205.2	19.06	366
<i>n</i> -Decoate ...	224°/2.5 "	0.9693	1.5208	213.0	17.13	394
<i>n</i> -Undecoate...	232°/2.5 "	0.9614	1.5188	221.0	16.44	422

d.1 Naphthylphenylacrylate.

Solvent	Length of tube, cm.	Weight of solute, in grams.	α_D^{20}	α_D^{25}	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	$[\alpha]_D^{25}$	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	$[\alpha]_D^{25}$	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	$[\alpha]_D^{25}$	Dispersion, $\alpha_D^{20} - \alpha_D^{25}$
Benzene	22	1.0589	+8.70°	+10.48°	+18.25°	+74.67°	+89.97°	+156.7°	+180.7°	+217.7°	+37.0°
Acetone	10	0.6687	+2.39	+2.86	+0.20	+71.48	+85.54	+156.5	+172.9	+207.0	+34.6
Ethyl alcohol	22	1.0666	+7.69	+9.39	+16.52	+65.37	+80.02	+140.8	+168.2	+193.6	+25.4
Chloroform	22	1.0952	+7.80	+9.40	+16.41	+64.76	+78.03	+136.2	+156.7	+188.8	+32.1
Carbon disulphide	22	0.9686	+6.41	+7.73	+13.30	+60.15	+72.52	+124.8	+145.5	+175.6	+30.1
Ethylene dibromide	10	0.9219	+2.51	+2.95	+5.30	+54.46	+64.00	+115.0	+131.8	+154.9	+23.1
Pyridine	20	1.0340	+4.38	+5.23	+9.02	+42.36	+50.58	+87.24	+102.5	+122.4	+20.2
<i>Hydrogen Phthalate.</i>											
Carbon disulphide	22	1.0106	+8.37	+10.09	+18.90	+75.26	+90.72	+170.0	+293.6	+353.8	+63.8
Acetic acid	22	0.9900	+2.75	+3.23	+5.22	+25.25	+29.65	+47.94	+98.49	+115.7	+16.9
Chloroform	22	1.1846	+2.28	+2.71	+4.22	+17.50	+20.80	+32.36	+68.23	+81.12	+12.3
Benzene	22	1.0917	+0.60	+0.57	+0.12	+5.00	+4.74	+11.14	+19.48	+18.51	-0.90
Pyridine	22	1.0454	-0.15	-0.36	-1.28	-1.30	-3.13	-11.14	-5.09	-12.22	-7.13
Ethyl alcohol	22	1.0326	-2.55	-3.25	-6.93	-22.46	-28.63	-61.02	-87.58	-111.6	-24.6
<i>Sodium Salt of the Hydrogen Phthalate.</i>											
Ethyl alcohol	22	1.0595	-3.50	-4.14	-7.37	-29.35	-35.52	+63.24	+120.9	+146.3	+26.5
<i>Brucine Salt of the Hydrogen Phthalate.</i>											
Ethyl alcohol	22	1.0823	-1.45	-2.07	-5.62	-12.81	-17.39	+47.21	+95.50	+136.3	+40.1

All solutions for the determinations of rotatory power recorded in this paper were prepared by making up about 1 gram of the substance to 20 c.c. with the solvent at the temperature of the laboratory, at which temperature all observations were made.

TABLE VI.
Determination of the Rotatory Powers of the Esters in (approx.) 5 per cent. Solution in Ethyl Alcohol.

Ester.	Length of tube, cm.	Weight of solute in grams.	α_D^{20}	α_D^{25}	α_D^{30}	α_D^{35}	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	$[\alpha]_D^{25}$	$[\alpha]_D^{30}$	$[\alpha]_D^{35}$	$[M]_D^{20}$	$[M]_D^{25}$	$[M]_D^{30}$	$[M]_D^{35}$	Dispers. Mg. rot. 5 mm.
Acetate	20	1.1363	3.84°	4.02°	4.64°	4.62°	33.80°	35.38°	40.84°	75.88°	95.98°	100.5°	116.0°	215.5°	1.868
Propionate	20	0.9503	3.45	3.60	4.17	7.65	36.31	37.88	43.88	80.52	108.1	112.9	130.8	240.0	1.835
Butyrate	22	1.1019	3.90	4.08	4.70	8.70	32.18	33.66	38.77	71.76	100.4	105.1	121.0	224.0	1.851
Valerate	20	1.1392	3.10	3.34	3.76	7.04	27.21	29.32	33.01	61.80	88.72	95.57	107.6	201.5	1.873
Hexoate.....	20	0.9768	2.59	2.67	3.05	5.85	26.52	27.33	31.23	59.89	90.16	92.94	108.2	203.6	1.848
Heptoate	20	0.9887	2.30	2.44	2.76	5.10	23.26	24.68	27.91	51.58	82.33	87.36	98.81	182.6	1.848
Octoate	20	0.9020	2.28	2.37	2.72	5.12	25.27	26.27	30.16	56.76	93.01	96.68	111.0	208.8	1.862
Nonoate	20	1.1589	2.55	2.65	3.05	5.74	22.01	22.87	26.32	49.53	84.07	87.36	100.6	189.2	1.862
Decoate	22	1.0001	2.15	2.27	2.53	19.54	20.64	23.00	77.39	81.72	91.07
Undecoate	20	1.1233	2.02	2.12	2.41	4.80	17.90	18.88	21.40	42.74	73.76	77.39	87.08	175.2	1.902

TABLE VII.
Determination of the Rotatory Powers of the Esters in (approx.) 5 per cent. Solution in Carbon Disulphide.

Ester.	Length of tube, cm.	Weight of solute in grams.	n_D	n_D	n_D	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	$[\alpha]_D$	Dispersion $\frac{H_g^{2000}}{H_g^{4000}}$
Acetate	22	1.1254	13.80	14.51	16.95	33.10	111.5	117.3	137.0	208.2	316.7	333.1	380.0	1.914
Propionate	20	1.0157	12.48	13.12	15.31	26.83	122.8	129.1	150.7	223.6	366.0	384.9	440.0	1.948
Butyrate	20	1.0665	12.05	12.74	14.84	26.12	113.1	119.5	139.3	273.2	352.8	373.9	434.5	1.902
Valerate	20	0.9541	9.70	10.32	12.07	23.58	102.7	108.1	126.6	247.3	334.6	352.7	412.5	1.954
Hexoate	10	0.9485	4.70	4.87	5.68	11.40	56.10	102.7	119.8	240.4	337.6	349.1	407.1	2.005
Heptoate	10	1.2190	5.47	5.79	6.72	13.25	86.74	94.99	110.3	217.4	317.7	336.2	390.3	1.972
Octoate	10	1.0342	4.48	4.71	5.49	10.75	86.64	91.67	106.2	207.9	318.8	335.2	390.6	1.958
Nonoate	10	1.0299	4.29	4.52	5.34	10.40	84.06	88.54	104.6	203.8	321.0	338.2	399.6	1.947
Decoate.....	20	1.0773	8.44	8.87	10.36	21.50	78.36	82.35	96.26	199.6	310.3	326.1	381.0	2.075
Undecoate	22	1.0180	8.31	8.74	10.19	20.50	74.22	78.05	90.99	183.1	304.3	320.0	373.1	2.012

vol. cv.

Determinations of Density (D_4) and Rotatory Power (α_D^{25}) of the Carbinol and Esters in the Homogeneous State.

The procedure in the determinations of rotatory density was the same as described in Part VIII. (this vol., p. 257)

d-1-Naphthyl-n-hexylcarbinol.

Temp.	31°	63°	91°	146°				
D_4	1.0147	0.9890	0.9668	0.9234				
Temp.	15°	24°	26.5°	28°	36°	38°	42.5°	44°
α_D	-6.04°	-3.26°	-3.88°	-4.56°	-10.12°	-11.40°	-13.60°	-14.94°
	33°	58°	64°	76°	98°	104°	119°	145°
	+20.00°	22.00°	25.14°	29.16°	35.72°	36.52°	38.80°	39.60°
Temp.	15°	24°	25°	26.5°	28°	32.5°	39°	43°
α_D	-8.12°	-2.30°	-2.48°	-3.54°	-4.78°	-8.20°	-12.90°	-16.52°
	49°	55°	58°	69°	103.5°	125°	145°	168°
	20.32°	23.70°	25.34°	31.86°	43.34°	46.80°	47.90°	48.30°
Temp.	15°	24°	25°	26.5°	28°	32°	39°	43°
α_D	-24.82°	-6.00°	-5.06°	-3.34°	-0.76°	-5.10°	-14.24°	-21.48°
	56°	58°	60°	73°	104°	125°	143°	169°
	36.42°	37.48°	40.42°	50.00°	72.20°	79.20°	81.04°	81.90°

Acetate of d-1-Naphthyl-n-hexylcarbinol.

Temp.	19.5°	54°	90°	132°				
D_4	1.0266	1.0001	0.9699	0.9371				
Temp.	21°	47°	83°	104°	123°	154°	158°	168°
α_D	-24.56°	-29.90°	-34.58°	-36.08°	-37.58°	-38.64°	-38.6°	-38.6°
Temp.	21°	49°	83°	104°	123°	158°	158°	168°
α_D	-25.96°	-31.54°	-36.50°	-38.26°	-39.68°	-40.58°	-40.5°	-40.5°
Temp.	21°	49°	83°	104°	123°	153°	153°	168°
α_D	-29.72°	-36.50°	-42.00°	-44.10°	-45.66°	-46.90°	-46.9°	-46.9°
Temp.	21°	49.5°	83°	104°	123°	158°	158°	168°
α_D	-54.88°	-67.42°	-78.30°	-82.18°	-85.00°	-87.20°	-87.2°	-87.2°

Propionate.

Temp.	20.5°	56°	94°	134°				
D_4	1.0144	0.9885	0.9574	0.9208				
Temp.	24°	54°	68°	97°	123°	153°	158°	168°
α_D	-29.96°	-35.32°	-37.08°	-39.88°	-41.00°	-41.40°	-41.4°	-41.4°
Temp.	24°	52°	75°	96°	123°	152°	152°	168°
α_D	-31.42°	-36.56°	-39.30°	-41.80°	-42.70°	-43.34°	-43.3°	-43.3°
Temp.	24°	52°	76°	96°	123°	152°	152°	168°
α_D	-36.26°	-42.46°	-45.86°	-48.04°	-49.46°	-50.24°	-50.2°	-50.2°
Temp.	24°	51°	76°	96°	123°	152°	152°	168°
α_D	-67.80°	-79.00°	-86.10°	-90.30°	-92.96°	-94.16°	-94.1°	-94.1°

OF ROTATORY POWER ON CHEMICAL CONSTITUTION. 2663

n-Butyrate.

.....	18°	61°	97°	134.5			
.....	0.0066	0.9739	0.9459	0.9155			
.....	20°	30°	60°	85°	105°	121°	163
.....	27.12°	29.91°	32.78°	34.86°	35.92°	36.28°	36.76°
.....	20°	37°	85°	105°	121°	163	195
.....	23.30°	34.26°	36.60°	37.78°	38.18°	38.56°	38.18°
.....	32.70°	39.54°	42.50°	43.60°	44.34°	44.60°	44.62°
.....	20°	56°	84°	105°	121°	163	195
.....	60.50°	73.70°	79.20°	81.90°	82.78°	83.66°	82.46°

n-Valerate.

.....	20.5°	56.5°	93°	132°			
.....	0.9956	0.9694	0.9410	0.9088			
.....	23°	45°	65°	87°	119°	138°	182°
.....	22.58°	25.68°	27.68°	29.38°	30.72°	31.16°	30.90°
.....	23°	47°	87°	120°	138°	182°	
.....	23.68°	27.01°	30.74°	32.26°	32.56°	32.32°	
.....	23°	47°	87°	121°	138°	182°	
.....	27.28°	31.22°	35.48°	37.26°	37.66°	37.38°	
.....	23°	47°	87°	122°	138°	182°	
.....	50.70°	58.80°	66.42°	69.84°	70.58°	70.68°	

n-Hexate.

.....	19°	57°	97°	146°			
.....	0.9897	0.9636	0.9285	0.8911			
.....	20°	48°	60°	72°	107°	130°	152°
.....	20.90°	24.36°	25.30°	25.90°	27.40°	27.80°	28.14°
.....	20°	49°	58°	76°	109°	129°	156°
.....	22.12°	25.80°	26.46°	27.68°	29.16°	29.38°	29.70°

n-Heptate.

.....	18°	53.5°	97°	141°			
.....	0.9825	0.9584	0.9220	0.8874			
.....	20°	56°	82°	114°	148°		
.....	+19.30°	22.66°	24.18°	24.84°	24.92°		
.....	20°	53°	87°	116°	148°		
.....	+20.24°	23.66°	25.40°	26.04°	26.14°		
.....	20°	52°	86°	117°	148°		
.....	+23.28°	26.76°	28.88°	29.82°	30.60°		

n-Octate.

.....	18°	55°	92°	144.5°			
.....	0.9806	0.9549	0.9263	0.8880			

n-Octoate (continued).

Temp.	20°	44°	58°	69°	88°	120°	143°	$\frac{1}{2}$
α_D	20.79°	22.94°	23.84°	24.36°	24.80°	25.50°	25.34°	$\frac{1}{2}$
Temp.	20°	45°	68°	91°	118°	143°		$\frac{1}{2}$
α_{yellow}	21.66°	24.24°	25.80°	26.00°	26.76°	26.92°		$\frac{1}{2}$
α_{green}	24.94°	27.88°	29.84°	29.96°	30.74°	30.68°		$\frac{1}{2}$
Temp.	20°	45°	67°	90°	117°	143°		$\frac{1}{2}$
α	16.60°	22.28°	25.74°	26.48°	27.60°	27.60°		$\frac{1}{2}$

n-Nonoate.

Temp.	17°	59°	95°	144.5°	
D_1^1	0.9734	0.9442	0.9137	0.8800	

Temp.	18°	35°	77°	98°	136°	$\frac{1}{2}$
α_D	18.30°	20.20°	21.92°	22.40°	22.60°	$\frac{1}{2}$
Temp.	18°	58°	71°	101°	136°	$\frac{1}{2}$
α_{yellow}	18.92°	22.00°	22.60°	23.24°	23.64°	$\frac{1}{2}$
Temp.	18°	60°	74°	101°	136°	$\frac{1}{2}$
α_{green}	22.60°	25.60°	26.26°	27.00°	27.38°	$\frac{1}{2}$

n-Decoate.

Temp.	20.5°	58°	94°	132°	
D_1^1	0.9674	0.9410	0.9137	0.8892	
Temp.	20°	56°	95°	135°	
α_D	16.60°	19.00°	20.40°	20.78°	
Temp.	20°	49°	95°	132°	
α_{yellow}	17.54°	19.38°	21.18°	21.60°	
α_{green}	20.16°	22.46°	24.44°	25.60°	

n-Undecoate.

Temp.	20.5°	58°	94°	132°	
D_1^1	0.9605	0.9341	0.9075	0.8792	
Temp.	20°	61°	94°		
α_D	+15.80°	18.36°	19.22°		
α_{yellow}	+16.42°	18.94°	19.84°		
α_{green}	+19.00°	21.74°	22.54°		

Acetate of 1:1-Naphthylmethylcarbinol

Temp.	16°	64°	99°	138°		
D _i	1.1071	1.0699	1.0380	1.0019		
Temp.	27°	36°	56°	100°	136°	160°
α _v	-38.66°	41.84°	46.90°	54.80°	56.70°	57.00°
Temp.	19°	27°	36°	61°	78°	101°
α _{gr}	-42.70°	47.02°	50.10°	58.32°	62.26°	66.84°
Temp.	27°	34°	62°	76°	100°	136°
α _{st}	-87.30°	91.90°	110.30°	115.30°	126.00°	129.66°

In every case these esters were found to have undergone no change during the heating in the polarimeter tube, whilst all of them when hydrolysed yielded samples of the carbinols of very power identical with that of the original preparations.

The authors have much pleasure in acknowledging the assistance given to them by Mr. John Ranson, and desire to express thanks to the Government Grant Committee of the Royal Society for grants which have defrayed some of the expense of this investigation.

MANCHESTER TECHNICAL SCHOOL,
BLACKBURN.

MIX.—*Carboxylic Acids Derived from cycloButane, cycloPentane, cycloHexane, and cycloHeptane.*

By LEONARD JAMES GOLDSWORTHY and
WILLIAM HENRY PERKIN, JUNR.

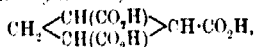
The present investigation is one of a series which has been instituted with the object of obtaining further evidence relating to the relative readiness of formation and stability of cyclic structures containing varying numbers of carbon atoms. Judging by the results produced in analogous reactions, experience is roughly in accordance with Baeyer's "Spannungstheorie," and seems to indicate that, in the cyclopropane, cyclobutane, cyclopentane, and cyclohexane series, derivatives of cyclopropane are produced with greatest difficulty, and that, whilst derivatives of cyclobutane and cyclopentane are much more readily obtained, the tendency to cyclohexane derivatives is so pronounced that these are produced in quantitative yields, and not infrequently during reactions which might be expected to lead to the formation of ring complexes. The evidence on this point, however, is often conflicting, since it has frequently been observed that, although cyclic derivatives are obtained in very small yields, other members of the same ring seem to be produced under very similar conditions with great readiness. Thus the yield of ethyl cyclobutane-1-dicarboxylate (I) obtained when ethylene dibromide is treated with the sodium derivative of ethyl malonate is very small, but ethyl cyclopropane-1:2-dicarboxylate (II) is readily pre-

pared in good yield when ethylene dibromide is replaced by the $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionate in this interaction:



Other similar cases have been observed, and one of the difficulties which arises is to distinguish between the effect on the yield of the reactivity of the interacting substances on the one hand and of the readiness of formation of the closed ring on the other.

It is clear that a useful generalisation cannot be formed until a much larger number of cyclic carboxylic acids and derivatives have been prepared and investigated, and, in the present communication, we describe some new carboxylic acids derived from cyclobutane, -pentane, -hexane, and -heptane. In each place, we have prepared the *cis*- and *trans*-modifications of *cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylic acid*,

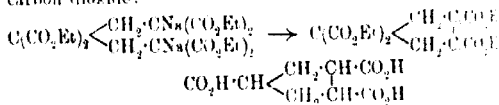


by causing ethyl $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionate to react with the disodium derivative of ethyl ethanetetra-carboxylate, when the reaction proceeds to the extent of about 50 per cent. in the required direction:

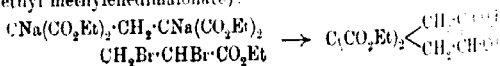
$$\text{CO}_2\text{Et}\cdot\text{CHBr}\cdot\text{CHBr} + \text{Na}_2\text{C}(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2 = \text{CO}_2\text{Et}\cdot\text{CH}\cdot\text{CH}\cdot\text{C}(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2 + \text{Na}_2\text{C}(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2$$

The product, after hydrolysis and elimination of carbon dioxide by heating at 190° , yields *cis*-cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylic acid (m. p. $141-143^\circ$), and this, when heated with hydrobromic acid at 180° , is converted into the *trans*-acid, which melts at $168-170^\circ$.

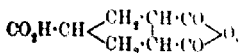
In the *cyclopentane* series the *cis*- and *trans*-modifications of 1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid have already been prepared from the disodium derivative of ethyl pentane- $\alpha\gamma\epsilon\epsilon$ -hexacarboxylate by the action of iodine and subsequent hydrolysis and elimination of carbon dioxide:



(Bottomley and Perkin, T., 1900, **77**, 296). We have succeeded in obtaining the same acids much more conveniently and in a much better yield by the action of ethyl $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionate on the disodium derivative of ethyl propane- $\alpha\gamma\gamma$ -tetra-carboxylate (ethyl methylenedimalonate):

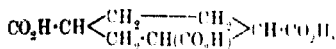


When the product of this interaction is hydrolysed, simultaneous elimination of one molecule of carbon dioxide takes place and a crystalline cyclopentanetetracarboxylic acid is formed. The crude acid decomposes at 180° , and yields a syrupy mass, from which *trans*-cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid is obtained by the action of hydrochloric acid at 190° . It melts at $127-130^{\circ}$, and is converted, by heating with acetic anhydride and subsequent distillation, into the anhydro-*cis*-acid:

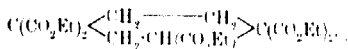
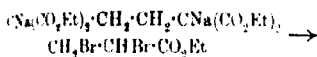


A highly characteristic derivative, which melts at $215-217^{\circ}$, and resembles the *cis*-acid (m. p. $146-148^{\circ}$) on hydrolysis.

We next attempted the synthesis of cyclohexane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid (hexahydrotrimellitic acid),



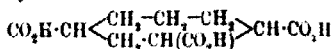
and which does not appear to have been previously described, but we ultimately succeeded in the following manner. The disodium derivative of ethyl butanetetracarboxylate was caused to react with α,β -dibromopropionate, when decomposition takes place in the following manner:



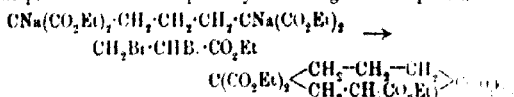
The ester thus produced yields, on hydrolysis and elimination of carbon dioxide, a mixture of stereoisomeric acids, from which, by action with hydrochloric acid at 190° , *trans*-cyclohexane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid was isolated, melting at $220-222^{\circ}$. When this acid was digested with acetic anhydride and the product distilled, most of it decomposed, but a small quantity of a distillate was obtained, which, on hydrolysis, yielded the *cis*-acid as a crystalline acid melting at 225° . It is remarkable that the *cis*- and *trans*-modifications of this acid should have almost identical melting points, and be so very similar in other properties that it was at first thought that they were identical.

However, a mixture of equal parts of the two preparations was said to soften at $198-200^{\circ}$, and to be almost completely melted at 250° , so that they cannot be identical, and there can be little doubt that they are the *cis*- and *trans*-modifications of cyclohexane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid.

Finally, we have succeeded in synthesizing *trans-cycloheptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid*:



one of the few derivatives of *cycloheptane* which have been obtained. For the purpose of this synthesis, the diethyl ester of ethyl pentane-*acac*-tetracarboxylate was digested with *αβ*-dibromopropionate when a complicated reaction took place, an ester, evidently ethyl *cyclopentane-1:1:2:4:4-pentacarboxylate*, was produced in small quantity according to the equation



When the product of this interaction was hydrolysed, the acid mixture heated at 200° and then esterified, it yielded a small quantity of *ethyl cycloheptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylate* (b.p. 212—215°/30 mm.).

On hydrolysis a syrupy mixture of stereoisomeric monomers was obtained, from which, by heating with hydrochloric acid at 190°, *trans-cycloheptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid* was isolated, melting at 198—200°.

Apparently there is little tendency in the direction of the contraction of the *cycloheptane* ring, since the yield of the above acid is so small that we were unable to examine it at all completely. Further experiments, which are in progress, will show whether the ring and also the *cyclo-octane* and still larger rings are more produced with more difficulty than the simpler rings containing three, four, five, and six carbon atoms.

EXPERIMENTAL.

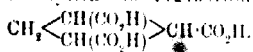
Preparation of Ethyl αβ-Dibromopropionate, CH₂Br·CHBr·CO₂Et

During the course of this and other investigations, large quantities of ethyl *αβ*-dibromopropionate were required, and, as the price charged for this ester is prohibitive, we have made a series of comparative experiments on the best conditions for its preparation and find that the following process works well. Allyl alcohol (180 grams or 210 c.c.) is mixed with an equal volume of carbon tetrachloride (or carbon disulphide), the solution cooled in ice and

* Crude commercial allyl alcohol contains a large amount of water, and, if used as the starting-point, it is shaken with potassium carbonate as long as dissolved, the aqueous layer run off and the alcohol dehydrated with a small quantity of potassium carbonate. It is then fractionated with an efficient fractionating column. The portion distilling at 95—98° was collected for use in the above preparation.

After bromine (496 grams or 156 c.c.) is gradually added, care is taken that the temperature remains below 5°. The chloroform is then removed by distillation from the water-bath under reduced pressure, and the residual crude dibromopropyl alcohol is not fractionated, but can be directly oxidised to $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionic acid. The crude dibromo-alcohol (150 grams) is mixed with ordinary concentrated nitric acid (210 grams or 140 c.c.) and with nitric acid (90 grams or 60 c.c. of D 1.5) in a capacious flask provided with a ground-in condenser and placed in water, and the water is then very gradually heated. As soon as the initial violent reaction has subsided, the water is raised to the boiling point and maintained at that for seven hours; the product is then left overnight in the ice-chest to cool, when the dibromopropionic acid usually crystallises, but, if not, the heating is continued and the mass seeded. The acid is collected on a Buchner funnel without filter paper, drained on porous porcelain, and a further quantity may be obtained by concentrating the mother liquors, so that the yield is about 75 per cent. of that theoretically possible. In order to obtain the ethyl ester, the acid is dissolved in one and a half times its own weight of a 10 per cent. solution of sulphuric acid in alcohol and heated on the water-bath for six hours. Water is then added, the heavy ester extracted with ether, the ethereal solution washed first with dilute sodium carbonate, then with water, dried, and the ether distilled off. The residual ethyl $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionate distils almost completely at 140–150°/100 mm., this was the material used in the following experiments.

The cis- and trans-cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylic Acids.



In order to obtain these acids, the first step was the synthesis of cyclobutane-1:1:2:2:3-pentacarboxylate (p. 2666), and this was accomplished in the following way: Ethyl ethanetetra-carboxylate (31 grams) was mixed with a little alcohol,² and then with solution of sodium (4.6 grams) in alcohol (100 c.c.), and, after going for a few minutes until the whole of the ester had passed in solution, ethyl $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionate (27 grams) was gradually added. In a short time the mixture became warm, copious precipitation of sodium bromide took place, and the process was continued by heating in a soda-water bottle in boiling water for four hours. The product was mixed with water, extracted with ether, the ethereal solution washed well, dried, and the ether distilled off.

The alcohol used in all these experiments was carefully dehydrated by distillation over lime and then over calcium.

The crude ester which appears to distil at about 230° cannot be purified before conversion into *cyclobutanetricarboxylic acid*, but is at once hydrolysed by boiling with 50 per cent. methyl-alcoholic potassium hydroxide for four hours.

Water is then added, the product evaporated until free from methyl alcohol, the solution is then acidified with excess concentrated hydrochloric acid, evaporated to dryness, and the residue extracted with ether in a Soxhlet apparatus. After filtering off the ether, crude *cyclobutanepentacarboxylic acid* remains a slightly brown, viscid syrup, and this is heated in an oil-bath at 130° for one hour, when the evolution of carbon dioxide has ceased. The acid which remains does not readily crystallize, and is therefore purified by conversion into the ester which is obtained by boiling the acid with ten times its weight of 10 per cent. sulphuric acid in a reflux apparatus for seven hours. The ester is diluted with water, extracted with ether, the etheral solution washed well with sodium carbonate, dried, and evaporated, the residue fractionated under 40 mm. pressure. A small quantity of oil passes over below 190° , and probably contains ethyl acetate; then almost the whole of the remainder distils at $190-205^{\circ}/40$ mm. refractraction, pure *ethyl cis-cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylate* is obtained as a colourless oil boiling at $195-197^{\circ}/40$ mm.

0.2246 gave 0.4714 CO_2 and 0.1540 H_2O . $\text{C} = 57.2$; $\text{H} = 7.3$ per cent.

$\text{C}_{13}\text{H}_{20}\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C} = 57.3$; $\text{H} = 7.3$ per cent.

In the preparation of the tricarboxylic acid, the ester distilling at $190-205^{\circ}/40$ mm. was hydrolysed by boiling with excess 25 per cent. methyl-alcoholic potassium hydroxide for four hours. Water was then added, the solution evaporated until free from methyl alcohol, mixed with excess of hydrochloric acid, evaporated, and the dry residue extracted with ether in a Soxhlet apparatus. The etheral solution deposited, after boiling off the ether, a solid acid, which was left in contact with peroxide of hydrogen and then re-crystallised from concentrated hydrochloric acid.

0.1410 gave 0.2332 CO_2 and 0.0592 H_2O . $\text{C} = 45.1$; $\text{H} = 4.3$ per cent.

$\text{C}_7\text{H}_8\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C} = 44.7$; $\text{H} = 4.3$ per cent.

On titration, 0.1226 required 0.0772 NaOH for neutralization, whereas this amount of a tribasic acid, $\text{C}_7\text{H}_8\text{O}_6$, should require 0.0782 NaOH .

cis-cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylic acid melts at $141-143^{\circ}$, is readily soluble in water or alcohol, but rather sparingly in cold concentrated hydrochloric acid.

In order to obtain the *trans*-modification, the *cis*-acid was heated with concentrated hydrochloric acid (15 c.c. in a test-tube at 180° for two hours. After diluting with water and

As a trace of carbonaceous matter, the solution was concentrated, and on standing over solid potassium hydroxide, a hard, glassy, brittle mass, consisting of flat, glistening plates, gradually formed:

0.01 gave 0.1699 CO_2 and 0.0111 H_2O . C = 44.9; H = 4.4.

$\text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$ requires C = 44.7; H = 4.2 per cent.

In titration, 0.3500 neutralised 0.2236 NaOH , whereas this amount of a tribasic acid, $\text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$, should neutralise 0.2234 NaOH . *trans-cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylic acid* melts at $168-170^\circ$, is readily soluble in water, but sparingly so in concentrated hydrochloric acid. The solution of the acid in excess of ammonia, when boiled with barium chloride, a very sparingly soluble salt, and the *cis*-acid behaves in a similar manner. Both are oxidised with difficulty, even when their alkaline solutions are boiled with permanganate.

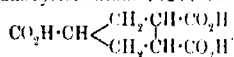
Trianilide of the trans-Acid. In order to prepare this derivative, the pure *trans*-acid was heated with thionyl chloride in a test-tube at 100° for an hour; the product was then evaporated, the residual syrup dissolved in benzene. Aniline was added in excess, and, as soon as the vigorous action had subsided, the benzene was evaporated, the mass treated with dilute hydrochloric acid, and the precipitate collected and drained on porous porcelain. The *trianilide* of *trans-cyclobutane-1:2:3-tricarboxylic acid* melts at 102° , and separates from alcohol, in which it is sparingly soluble, as a lustrous, almost gelatinous, mass of needles. For analysis it was recrystallised by dissolving in acetone and adding benzene; acetone was then distilled off, and the solution set aside, when the substance separated as a crystalline crust of needles:

0.60 gave 21.5 c.c. N_2 at 17° and 763 mm. N = 10.2.

$\text{C}_{27}\text{H}_{23}\text{O}_6\text{N}_3$ requires N = 10.2 per cent.

In order to make sure that transformation of the *trans*-acid into *cis*-modification had not taken place during the heating with thionyl chloride, some of the syrupy product of this action was exposed by boiling with water and the acid recrystallised, when it melted at $168-170^\circ$.

The cis and trans-cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic Acids.



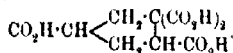
Diethyl cyclopentane-1:1:2:4-pentacarboxylate employed in the synthesis of these acids was obtained under the following conditions.

Ethyl methylenedimalonate, $(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2\text{CH}\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{CH}(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2$ (33.2

grams), dissolved in alcohol (50 c.c.) was added to a solution of sodium (4.6 grams) in alcohol (100 c.c.), and, after a few minutes the disodium derivative was mixed with ethyl $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopentanoate (26 grams), when gradual rise of temperature, followed by vigorous action, set in, and sodium bromide separated. The reaction was completed by heating for three hours in a soda-water bath; the product was diluted with water, extracted with ether, washed well, drying, and evaporating off the ether, the residue was distilled, when almost the whole quantity passed at 226–240°/15 mm., and, on redistillation, the boiling point of ethyl cyclopentanepentacarboxylate was observed at 234–236°/15 mm. The ester was hydrolysed in the usual manner by boiling with excess of 25 per cent. methyl-alcoholic potassium hydroxide for four hours, the product was diluted with water, evaporated until free from methyl alcohol, acidified, extracted with ether, and the mass extracted with ether in a Soxhlet apparatus. When the ethereal solution was evaporated, a glassy mass remained, which became partly solid while still on the water-bath. This was stirred with concentrated hydrochloric acid, and the powder which separated was collected, washed with water, acid, left in contact with porous porcelain in a vacuum desiccator, and then analysed:

0.1670 gave 0.2768 CO_2 and 0.0644 H_2O . $\text{C}=43.7$; $\text{H}=7.7$.
 $\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{O}_4$ requires $\text{C}=43.9$; $\text{H}=7.6$ per cent.

It is obvious that during the hydrolysis under the above conditions one molecule of carbon dioxide had been eliminated, and the above acid is cyclopentane-1:2:2:4-tetracarboxylic acid.



Ethyl cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylate, $\text{C}_5\text{H}_7(\text{CO}_2\text{H})(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2$. In order to prepare this ester the crude product of the hydrolysis of ethyl cyclopentanepentacarboxylate was heated at 190–200° for one hour, when a glassy mass remained, which did not crystallize. It was converted into the ester by heating with alcohol and concentrated acid in the usual manner (p. 2670), and the pure substance was obtained at 205–210°/40 mm.:

0.1938 gave 0.4186 CO_2 and 0.1360 H_2O . $\text{C}=58.9$; $\text{H}=7.8$.
 $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C}=58.7$; $\text{H}=7.8$ per cent.

The corresponding trimethyl ester, $\text{C}_5\text{H}_7(\text{CO}_2\text{Me})_3$, had previously been obtained (T., 1900, 77, 303), and distilled at 160–162°/12 mm. The pure triethyl ester was hydrolysed with concentrated alcoholic potassium hydroxide in the usual manner, and, after removal of the methyl alcohol, acidifying and evaporating, the

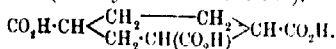
the mass was extracted with ether in a Soxhlet apparatus, on evaporation, the ethereal solution deposited a syrup, which, on treatment with concentrated hydrochloric acid, crystallised, and the solid mass, after washing with hydrochloric acid and drying on porous porcelain, melted indefinitely at 115–125°, and was apparently a mixture of the *cis*- and *trans*-modifications of cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid. In order to demonstrate this, half of the mixture was heated with hydrochloric acid in a sealed tube at 120° for four hours. The product was diluted with water, filtered to remove a small amount of carbonaceous matter, and evaporated to dryness; it was then dissolved in water, digested with animal charcoal, and again evaporated. When the syrupy residue was treated with concentrated hydrochloric acid, it crystallised with facility (compare T., 1900, 77, 304), and the solid mass, after treatment with porous porcelain and recrystallisation from hydrochloric acid, melted at 129–130°, and consisted of *trans*-cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid:

0.1264 gave 0.2224 CO₂ and 0.0568 H₂O. C = 47.9; H = 5.0.

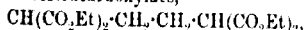
C₈H₁₀O₆ requires C = 47.5; H = 4.9 per cent.

0.1528 neutralised 0.0880 NaOH, whereas this amount of a tribasic acid, C₈H₁₀O₆, should neutralise 0.0907 NaOH, *cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic Acid*. This modification was obtained by heating the crude mixture of acids melting at 115–125° (see above) with acetic anhydride for an hour, and then setting the product, when anhydro-*cis*-cyclopentanetricarboxylic acid solidified in the neck of the retort. After recrystallisation from a mixture of acetone and chloroform, this substance melted at 146–147°, as stated by Bottomley and Perkin (*loc. cit.*, p. 305). A solution of the anhydro-acid in water deposited, on concentration, colourless crystals of *cis*-cyclopentane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid, melting at 146–148°.

The cis- and trans-cycloHexane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic Acids
(*Hexahydrotrimellitic Acids*).



Diethyl butanetetra-carboxylate,



used for these experiments was prepared by the process described by Perkin (T., 1894, 65, 578). This ester (34.6 grams), dissolved in an equal weight of alcohol, was mixed with a solution of anhydrous calcium chloride (4.6 grams) in alcohol (100 c.c.) and then with ethyl chromopropionate (26 grams), when, on setting aside, the

mixture gradually became quite hot. After heating for some time in a soda-water bottle in boiling water, water was added, the ester extracted with ether, and, since it decomposed on heating, it was at once hydrolysed by boiling with excess of 20 per cent methyl-alcoholic potassium hydroxide in the usual manner.

Water was then added, the methyl alcohol carefully removed, the water-bath, the product acidified with excess of hydrochloric acid, evaporated to dryness, and extracted in a Soxhlet apparatus with ether.

On evaporation, the ethereal extract deposited a syrup, partly solidified, and this was heated at 190° for half an hour, the syrupy residue being then esterified by boiling with concentrated sulphuric acid and the ester fractionated (compare p. 2070). *trans-cyclohexane-1:2:4-tricarboxylate* was thus obtained as a light oil, which distilled at about $207^{\circ}/30$ mm.:

0.1898 gave 0.4142 CO_2 and 0.1374 H_2O . $\text{C}=59.5$; $\text{H}=7.5$.
 $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{24}\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C}=60.0$; $\text{H}=8.0$ per cent.

This ester was hydrolysed by boiling with excess of 20 per cent methyl-alcoholic potassium hydroxide for four hours, and, as the methyl alcohol had been completely removed, hydrochloric acid was added, the whole evaporated to dryness, and extracted with ether in a Soxhlet apparatus.

The syrup which remained on distilling off the ether, only partly solidified when it was rubbed with hydrochloric acid, and thus had an indefinite melting point, obviously consisting of two or three stereoisomeric modifications. In order to isolate one definite modification (*trans*), the whole was heated with concentrated hydrochloric acid in a sealed tube at 190° for four hours, the product was diluted with water, filtered from a small amount of flocculent matter, decolorised with animal charcoal, and evaporated to dryness, during which the acid commenced to separate as small crystals. After remaining in the ice-chest for two days, crystals were collected, dissolved in ether, filtered from a trace of inorganic matter, and the ether removed, when a solid remained which was crystallised from hydrochloric acid:

0.1786 gave 0.3304 CO_2 and 0.0948 H_2O . $\text{C}=50.4$; $\text{H}=5.3$.
 $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C}=50.0$; $\text{H}=5.6$ per cent.

On titration 0.1526 required for neutralisation 0.0816 NaOH , whereas this amount of a tribasic acid, $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$, neutralises 0.0816 NaOH .

trans-cyclohexane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid is rather sparingly soluble in cold, but readily so in hot water, and has a marked tendency to form supersaturated solutions, which only gradually

ment the acid as a hard, opaque, crystalline crust. It melts at 220–222° to a colourless, viscid syrup, but the exact point is difficult to observe.

trans-cycloHeptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic Acid.—In order to obtain a acid, the pure *trans*-acid (2 grams) was mixed with acetic anhydride (5 c.c.) in a test-tube, and gently boiled by means of a water-bath for one hour; the temperature was then raised, and the excess of acetic anhydride distilled off. The test tube was run out, and the whole heated as rapidly as possible over a flame, when there was much decomposition and a voluminous porous mass remained.

The small quantity of brown distillate, which partly solidified on cooling, was boiled with much water, filtered from a little tar, adsorbed with animal charcoal, and then evaporated to a small residue and mixed with an equal volume of concentrated hydrochloric acid. On remaining in the ice-chest a crystalline crust gradually formed, and this was collected and crystallised from water, in which it is rather sparingly soluble in the cold, and from which the acid separated as a crust of colourless, warty masses, which had quite different appearance from the crystals of the *trans*-acid.

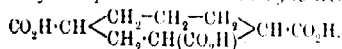
Analysis gave 0.2630 CO₂ and 0.0752 H₂O. C = 50.2; H = 5.8.

C₉H₁₂O₆ requires C = 50.0; H = 5.6 per cent.

Titration 0.1405 required 0.0764 NaOH for neutralisation, whereas this amount of a tribasic acid, C₉H₁₂O₆, neutralises 0.0780 NaOH.

cycloHeptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid softens at 218°, melts at 220°, and, when it is mixed with an equal amount of the *trans*-acid, the mixture softens very much at 198–200°, and is almost completely melted at 208° (compare p. 2667).

trans-cycloHeptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic Acid,



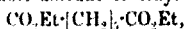
The investigation of this interesting acid has been rendered difficult owing to the small yield which is produced by the following process, and it has not been found possible to obtain better results by varying these conditions. Ethyl *cycloheptane-1:1:2:4:4-pentacarboxylate* (p. 2668) was first prepared by mixing 36 grams of tri-*n*-butanetetetracarboxylate,



with T., 1887, 41, 240), first with a solution of sodium ethoxide and by dissolving sodium (4.6 grams) in alcohol (100 c.c.), and

2676 CARBOXYLIC ACIDS DERIVED FROM CYCLOBUTANE

then with ethyl $\alpha\beta$ -dibromopropionate (26 grams), and, after initial somewhat vigorous action had subsided, the whole was shaken in a soda-water bottle in boiling water for four hours. The ester was isolated by adding water and extracting with ether, and hydrolysed in the usual manner (p. 2670), the crude, dark, syrupy polybasic acid being heated at 200° for an hour, the residue esterified by boiling with alcohol and sulphuric acid, and distillation a considerable amount of ethyl pimelate,



passed over at about 190° – $195^{\circ}/100$ mm., and then crude *cycloheptanetricarboxylate* distilled at 200 – $230^{\circ}/30$ mm., leaving a considerable dark coloured residue in the distilling flask. The crude tricarboxylic ester was redistilled, and the fraction boiling at 212 – $215^{\circ}/30$ mm. analysed, but the yield obtained was 7 grams, or 8 per cent. of that theoretically possible.

0.1960 gave 0.4390 CO_2 and 0.1504 H_2O . $\text{C} = 61.1$; $\text{H} = 8.3$ per cent.

$\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{26}\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C} = 61.1$; $\text{H} = 8.3$ per cent.

This ester was hydrolysed by boiling with methylalcoholic potassium hydroxide in the usual manner, and, after removing the alcohol, excess of hydrochloric acid was added, the whole evaporated to dryness, and extracted with ether in a Soxhlet apparatus. The residue from the ether was a syrup, which could not be induced to crystallise, and was doubtless a mixture of stereoisomers. It was heated with hydrochloric acid in a sealed tube at 100° for four hours, the product diluted with water, filtered from a small amount of carbonaceous matter, and the hydrochloric acid removed by evaporation. The residue was dissolved in water, boiled with animal charcoal, and again evaporated, when a viscous, colourless syrup was obtained, which, on rubbing, almost completely solidified. After contact with porous porcelain, the acid separated from the hydrochloric acid in hard, nodular masses:

0.1100 gave 0.2106 CO_2 and 0.0623 H_2O . $\text{C} = 52.2$; $\text{H} = 6.1$ per cent.

$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{14}\text{O}_6$ requires $\text{C} = 52.2$; $\text{H} = 6.1$ per cent.

On titration 0.0488 required 0.0250 NaOH for neutralisation, whereas this amount of a tribasic acid, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{14}\text{O}_6$, should require 0.0254 NaOH .

trans-cycloheptane-1:2:4-tricarboxylic acid melts at 10° and is readily soluble in water. Unfortunately the amount of material available was not sufficient for the preparation of the *cis*-acid.

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Investigations on the Dependence of Rotatory Power on Chemical Constitution. Part X. The Optical Dispersive Power of Tetrahydro-2-naphthol and its Esters.

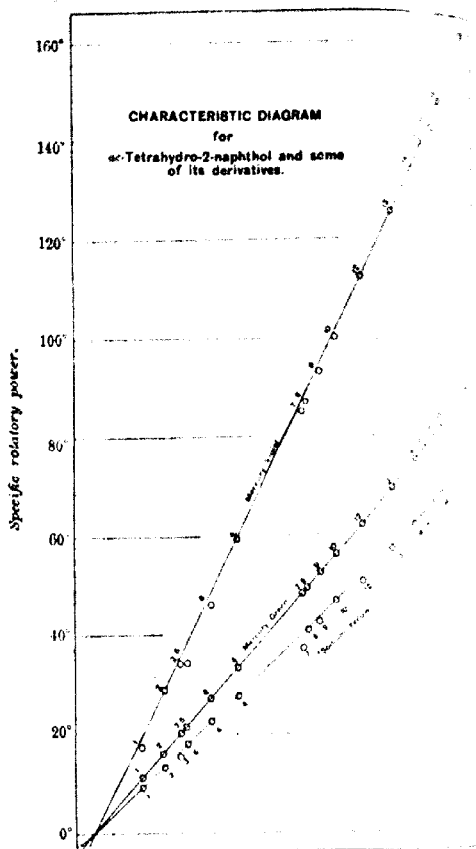
By JOSEPH KENYON and ROBERT HOWSON PICKARD.

As been shown in Parts VI and IX (this vol., pp. 1117 and 1147) that the optically active 1-naphthylalkylcarbinols of the general formula $C_{10}H_7\cdot CH(OH)\cdot R$ have complex dispersive powers at temperatures up to those far removed from their melting points. Thus the methyl member of the series has a complex dispersive power at all temperatures up to about 160° and the corresponding *n*-hexyl homologue up to about 180° , above which limiting temperatures the rotations of each obey the law of simple dispersive power as expressed by the Drude equation with one term, $\frac{A}{\lambda^2}$. It is further of interest to note that in the supercooled state at a few degrees below the melting points of these compounds their temperature-rotation curves for sodium-yellow to very violet light, which are perfectly regular throughout, exhibit none of so-called anomalous dispersion.

It has been suggested (*loc. cit.*) that below these limiting temperatures the apparently homogeneous carbinols are really mixtures of isomerides having rotatory powers of opposite sign, and hence in dispersive power. The further suggestion that the anomalous behavior is due to a different disposition of the valencies in the two radical forms (the two forms being of the nature of *ar*- and *ar'*-natives) makes it desirable to consider the dispersive power of compounds containing either the naphthyl radicle or other radicals closely related to it.

As already in Part III (T., 1912, 101, 1427) the preparation and the optical properties of both dextro- and levo-rotatory tetrahydro-2-naphthol have been described, but unfortunately the measurements were confined to light of one wave-length. Accordingly, the work described there has been partly confirmed and the results confirmed and extended. It has now been found that the temperature-rotation curves of *ac*-tetrahydro-2-naphthol in the fused state from a temperature of about 120° down to the melting point at 50° , and beyond in the supercooled state to below 15° , are perfectly regular and smooth. The rotations in the homogeneous state up to 120° , as also in various supercooled states, obey the law of simple dispersive power, but above 120°

FIG. 1.



Points marked 1 to 4 correspond with the rotations of the hydrocarbon at 5 per cent. concentration in ethyl alcohol, chloroform, pyridine and benzene respectively, points 5 and 6 with ethyl-alcoholic solutions of the sodium and potassium salts, points 7, 9 and 10 with the rotations of the valerate in the homogeneous state at 200°, 100° and 20° respectively, and points 8 and 11 with solutions of the valerate in chloroform and carbon disulphide. Points marked 12 to 17 refer to the rotations of the tetrahydronaphthol in the homogeneous state at 200°, at 140°, dissolved in carbon disulphide and in chloroform, and in the homogeneous state at 60° and 20° respectively. It will be noticed that points marked 1, 3, 5, 8, 7 and 12 do not fit on the lines of the diagram.

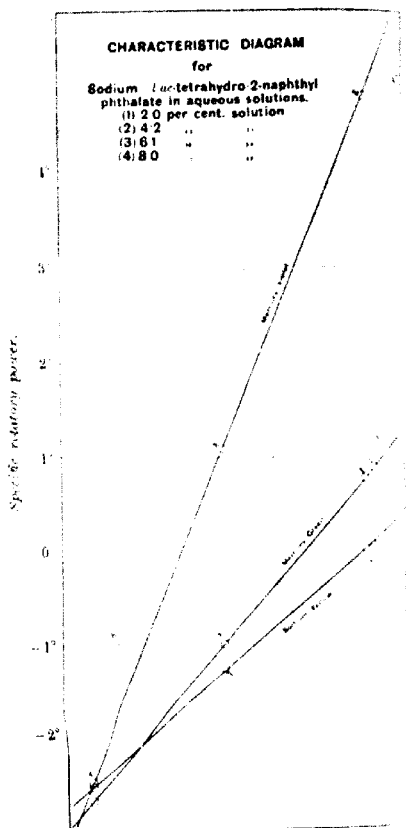
dispersive power becomes complex. Of this phenomenon there does not seem to be any simple explanation, but the properties of reduced compound are in marked contrast to those of the naphthylalkylcarbinols. The *n*-valeric ester in the homogeneous state at 20° and in solution and the hydrogen phthalate when added in benzene or chloroform also exhibit rotations, which fail to conform to the law of simple dispersive power. The same, however, in the homogeneous state at higher temperatures, solutions of hydrogen phthalate in alcohol or pyridine, and aqueous alcoholic solutions of the sodium or potassium salt of the latter all show complex dispersive power.

The alternative method of plotting such rotations by means of a "characteristic diagram" brings out these relations in a striking manner. Thus the diagram (Fig. 1), which is constructed in the usual manner, using the rotations for mercury-green light as a reference line, only correlates those rotations of the substances just mentioned, which conform to the law of simple dispersive power. It is not surprising that the diagram fails to correlate the rotations of *n*-valerate in the homogeneous state at higher temperatures, and not only has the *ac*-tetrahydro-2-naphthol then a complex dispersive power, but also, as has been repeatedly shown, an esterified cyclic group exhibits complex dispersive power at high temperatures. Assuming that dynamic isomerism is the underlying cause of the complex dispersive power exhibited by a colourless compound of simple chemical constitution (containing only one asymmetric carbon atom), it may be stated generally that in cases where complex dispersive power is exhibited at all temperatures the compound will contain more than one possible centre of dynamic isomerism. Illustrations of this general statement can be seen in the case of the naphthylalkylcarbinols and of *ac*-tetrahydro-2-naphthol, whilst each of the substances mentioned above as showing complex dispersive power when dissolved in certain solvents contains when so dissolved, two possible centres of dynamic isomerism, the observed rotations cannot be correlated on the characteristic diagram (Fig. 1). However, the rotations shown by aqueous solutions at various concentrations of sodium *ac*-tetrahydro-2-naphthylate can be correlated on another diagram (Fig. 2) specially constructed for these, and permit the inference that there is some relation between them.

Attention has already been drawn in this series of investigations to the danger of basing conclusions on the values of any one dispersion ratio. A good example of this danger is to be seen in the dispersion ratios of the substances named in tables I and II. It is noted that in the homogeneous state the ratio for mercury-

violet/green remains constant, but that for mercury-violet and yellow terms constantly to increase. This is well brought out in the diagram (Fig. 1), where the lines for violet, green and yellow

Fig. 2.



intersect at zero. When the green is used as a reference, the rotation values for violet and green all lie approximately on two lines, so that the dispersion ratio is constant, but in the case where complex dispersive power (see, for example, points 2 and

TABLE III.
Sodium 1-*c*-Tetrahydro-2-naphthyl Phthalate.

Solvent.	Length of observation tube, cm.	Weight of solute, grams.	α_D^{20}	α_D^{25}	α_D^{30}	$[\alpha]_D^{20}$	$[\alpha]_D^{25}$	$[\alpha]_D^{30}$	$[\eta]_D^{20}$	$[\eta]_D^{25}$	$[\eta]_D^{30}$
Water.....	22	0.5117	$\pm 0^\circ$	$+0.04^\circ$	$+0.26^\circ$	$+0.87^\circ$	$+5.65^\circ$	$\pm 0^\circ$	$+2.77^\circ$	$+17.96^\circ$	$+15.39^\circ$
".....	22	1.0332	± 0	$+0.07$	$+0.45$	± 0	± 0.75	± 0	± 0	± 0	± 0
".....	22	1.5280	-0.17	-0.14	$+0.15$	-1.24	-1.02	$+1.10$	-3.93	-3.24	$+3.47$
".....	22	1.9660	-0.45	-0.48	-0.44	-2.54	-2.71	-2.49	-8.09	-8.53	-7.82
Ethyl alcohol	22	0.9423	-1.53	-1.83	-2.91	-18.05	-21.69	-34.26	-57.40	-68.66	-108.9
1- <i>a</i> -Tetrahydro-2-naphthyl n-Valerate.											
Chloroform	22	0.9867	-4.45	-5.38	-9.48	-41.01	-40.57	-87.34	-95.13	-115.0	-202.6
Ethyl alcohol	20	1.0067	-4.15	-4.98	-8.91	-41.21	-40.45	-86.49	-95.61	-114.8	-205.3
Benzene	20	0.8279	-4.44	-5.35	-9.53	-53.63	-64.63	-115.1	-124.5	-149.9	-267.1
Carbon disulphide	20	1.0292	-6.57	-7.96	-14.40	-63.86	-77.36	-140.0	-148.1	-176.5	-324.7

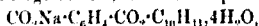
7 and 12) is exhibited the rotations for sodium-yellow light. The values fall on the line so that the ratio violet/yellow is not constant.

EXPERIMENTAL.*

ac-Tetrahydro-2-naphthol.

The preparation of this compound from β -naphthol by Baeyer and Lodter's method (*Ber.*, 1880, **23**, 205) gives only poor yields. One cause of this is the loss occasioned when the ethereal solution of the reduced naphthol is washed repeatedly with the aqueous solution of sodium diazobenzenesulphonate to remove the corresponding *ar-eco* compound. This operation, however, can be avoided and the product converted into hydrogen phthalic esters. The sodium salt of the hydrogen phthalate of *dl-ac-tetrahydro-2-naphthol* crystallises with great readiness from water, and its preparation affords a much better method of purifying the *ac*-compound than the older one.

This sodium salt crystallises from water in long needles and in aqueous alcohol in large tablets, has the composition



effloresces at about 60°, does not melt below 200°, and is sparingly soluble in ethyl alcohol:

0.3218 lost 0.0582 H_2O and gave 0.0584 Na_2SO_4 . $\text{H}_2\text{O} = 18.23$; $\text{Na} = 5.88$.

$\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{15}\text{O}_4\text{Na} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ requires $\text{H}_2\text{O} = 18.23$; $\text{Na} = 5.88$ per cent.

The resolution of the *dl*-hydrogen phthalate was carried out in the manner already described (*loc. cit.*), and the results were confirmed. The *d*- and *l*-esters form sodium salts, which have similar properties to that of the *dl*-ester.

Determinations of Rotatory Power (α^{100}_{mm}) of the Calcium Salt of dl-ac-Tetrahydro-2-naphthyl n-Valerate in the Homogeneous System

dl-ac-Tetrahydro-2-naphthol.

Temp.	28.5°	65°				
α_D	+80.50°	71.20°	(see also Part III., <i>loc. cit.</i>)			
Temp.	27°	59°	82°	126°	136°	156°
α_D ...	+96.72°	88.54°	82.00°	71.72°	70.58°	66.88°
Temp.	26.5°	58°	84°	126°	137°	157°
α_D	+173.60°	158.80°	140.04°	129.64°	126.30°	119.70°

* When not otherwise stated, the experimental procedure is similar to that previously described (*loc. cit.*).

*1-ac-Tetrahydro-2-naphthyl n-Valerate,**

	20°	44°	54°	110°	135°	161°
α	-48.12°	46.24°	45.64°	40.16°	38.36°	35.80°
β	20°	43°	59°	110°	138°	160°
γ	-37.80°	55.86°	54.44°	50.22°	47.84°	46.00°
δ	20°	41°	59°	110°	136°	162°
ϵ	-102.78°	-99.90°	-96.52°	-89.60°	-85.00°	-81.20°

The authors desire to express their thanks to the Government and Committee of the Royal Society for a grant, which has paid some of the expense of this investigation.

MANCHESTER TECHNICAL SCHOOL,
BLACKBURN.

II.—*The Reduction Products of Ethyl Hydrindene-2:2-dicarboxylate.*

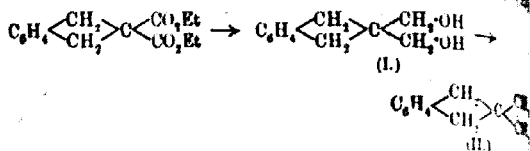
By JAMES KENNER.

In a previous communication it was suggested that the ease with which cyclic condensation occurs should be modified by the presence of certain carbon atoms which, being already members of a closed ring, have the directions of their valencies to some extent determined (Kenner and Turner, T., 1911, **99**, 2102). The question now to be described was undertaken with the object of studying ring-formation from compounds, the molecules of which contain one carbon atom fulfilling this condition; in other words, the preparation of *spiro*-compounds was to be attempted.

Substituent groups are also known to be important factors determining the facility of formation, and stability, of cyclic compounds; it appeared that, among *spiro*-compounds, the hydrocarbons would furnish the most decisive evidence of the influences referred to in the preceding paragraph. These and other considerations suggested the application to ethyl hydrindene-2:2-dicarboxylate of Bouveault and Blanc's method of reduction by means of

* These rotations are somewhat lower than those previously published. It has not yet been thought necessary to investigate the cause of the discrepancy, as this paper is not rich in optical dispersive power, which is only very slightly affected by the discrepancy.

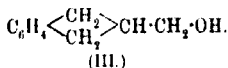
sodium and ethyl alcohol, in the hope of preparing *ω*-dihydroxy-2:2-dimethylhydrindene (I), from which the hydrocarbon (II)



might subsequently be obtained.

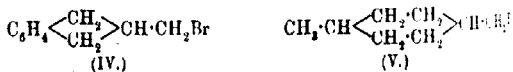
It had previously been shown by Bouveault and Blanc that *ω*-diisobutylmalonate, whilst furnishing a certain amount of the expected glycol, was to a considerable extent decomposed in the following way under the influence of sodium ethoxide during the reaction:

$(\text{C}_4\text{H}_9)_2\text{C}(\text{CO}_2\text{Et})_2 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} \rightarrow (\text{C}_4\text{H}_9)_2\text{CH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Et} + \text{CO}_2\text{Et}_2$
the ethyl isovalerate being then reduced in the normal manner (*Bull. Soc. chim.*, 1904, [iii], 31, 1203). Ethyl hydrindenedicarboxylate had, however, been shown by Thole and Thorpe to be quite stable towards sodium ethoxide at the ordinary temperature (T., 1911, 99, 2186), and the hope was therefore entertained that even at the higher temperature to be used in these experiments the type of decomposition observed by Bouveault and Blanc might assert itself in a marked degree. This expectation, however, was not realised, for the yield of the glycol (I) was disappointingly small, being less than 3 per cent. of the calculated. More than 40 per cent. of the ethyl hydrindenedicarboxylate was converted into 2-hydroxymethylhydrindene (III), the remainder being covered in the form of a mixture of hydrindene-mono- and dicarboxylic acids, in which the former largely predominated.

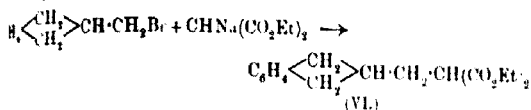


Initially, therefore, the dicarboxylic ester was almost entirely converted into the monocarboxylic ester, and, in the main opinion, this reaction must be ascribed to spatial causes, as will be discussed later. It is probable that such influences also play a part, although possibly a subordinate one, in promoting the decompositions discussed by Thole and Thorpe (*loc. cit.*).

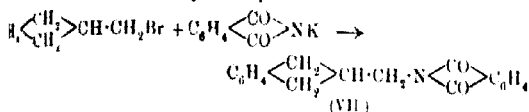
2-Hydroxymethylhydrindene was readily converted by the usual means into 2-bromomethylhydrindene (IV), the reactions of which



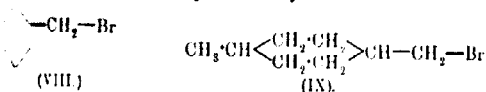
ated investigation, because it has frequently been observed that a bromine atom in derivatives of this type is remarkably inert. As Perkin and Pope found that 1-methyl-4-bromomethylcyclohexane (V) was converted into the cyanide only with considerable difficulty (T., 1908, 93, 1079). Similar relationships were discerned in the present instance. The bromo-compound was unchanged after prolonged boiling with amalgamated zinc and hydrochloric acid, in spite of the efficiency of this reducing agent (Clemmensen, *Ber.*, 1913, 46, 1837; 1914, 47, 51, 681). Interaction of the bromo-compound and ethyl sodiomalonate in alcoholic solution for ten hours at the boiling point resulted in the production of only about 65 per cent. of the calculated amount of *ethyl 2-hydrindimethylmalonate* (VI):



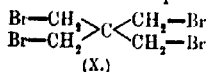
The formation of 2-*phthaliminomethylhydrindene* (VII) by heating the bromo-derivative with potassium phthalimide at 180–200° for nine hours was similarly incomplete:



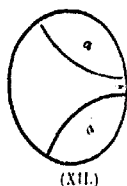
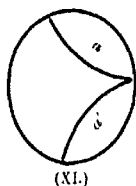
The contrast between the inertia of the bromine atom in such compounds and its activity in, for instance, benzyl bromide, is a matter of some comment, and is obviously in some way connected with the difference between the saturated and the unsaturated positions of the cyclic structures present in the two types of compounds. If, however, benzyl bromide be represented by the formula (VIII), in Flürscheim's notation, it would appear to follow as a striking consequence that Perkin and Pope's 1-methyl-4-bromocyclohexane is to be represented by the formula IX:



The similar inertia of the bromine atoms in tetrabromotetraphenylmethane (Perkin and Simonsen, T., 1905, 87, 161; Fecht, T., 1907, 40, 3884) would then find expression in the formula X:



The facts symbolised by these formulæ are illustrative of the influences referred to at the commencement of this paper, and, in the author's opinion, they are all explicable by a thorough application of Baeyer's strain theory. For it is at once clear that the normal relative positions of substituents known to exert steric hindrance, such as methyl (or bromomethyl) and carboxyl groups, may, when they are attached to the same carbon atom, be comparable, in regard to this atom, with those of the carbon atoms in, for instance, a cyclohexane or a cycloheptane ring. Then, adopting Werner's conception of the uniform spherical distribution of affinity round a carbon atom ("Beiträge zur Theorie der Affinität der Valenz," Zurich, 1891), we see that, if aa' in XI represents a section the zones of affinity appropriated by two univalent groups in the plane of the paper when "the angle between the valencies is $109^{\circ}28'$," an increase in this angle will cause an incursion in the relative position of the zones, which will now be represented by XII:

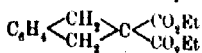


In this manner a certain amount of affinity, corresponding to the region (b), will be left unsatisfied, and the extent of this region is a measure of the "strain," in Baeyer's terminology. If these groups attached to the carbon atoms be free to move, they will probably so adjust themselves as partly to engage the valency left free because the change in position of the zones aa' means an incursion into the zones of affinity previously available for b .

In the following paragraphs, the attempt is made to apply these considerations to the cases in which (a) two of the groups attached to a carbon atom are components of the same cyclic system, and the other two are groups of large molecular volume. In this case the motion of the former groups is restricted, and the affinity represented by b will then remain free and available to a greater extent as partial valency to an atom situated above or below the plane of the paper and, for example, coplanar with the zone of affinity aa' .

Thus, in the case of ethyl hydrindenedicarboxylate there will be residual affinity on the quaternary carbon atom, and, owing to the encroachment of the carbethoxy-groups on the zones of affinity

ally available for the two carbon atoms of the hydrindene ring, and more of these groups will obtain less than its proper share of strain. This deduction is in agreement with the experimental facts just advanced, according to which we may conclude that the ester is more adequately represented by the formula XIII:

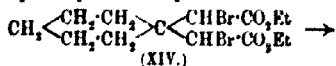


(XIV.)

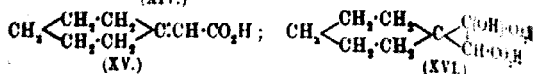
Similar considerations probably supply an explanation of a number of reactions met with in the chemistry of cyclic compounds. Illustration of this may be cited the change of camphor into camphene by distillation (Baeyer, *Ber.*, 1894, **27**, 1917), and into camphol and hydroxy-menthanone by absorption of the elements of hydrogen bromide or water (*ibid.*, p. 1920); the isomerisation of camphylamine hydrochloride into vestrylamine hydrochloride (*ibid.*, *Ber.*, 1894, **27**, 3486); the disruption of the bridge of dimethyldicyclopentanonecarboxylic acid by reduction (Perkin, *ibid.*, and Walker, *T.*, 1901, **79**, 729); the addition of the elements of hydrogen bromide to α -camphyllic acid (Perkin, *T.*, 1901, **83**, 842); and the various reactions by which the bridge in the camphor molecule is broken between two quaternary carbon atoms (see Aschan, "Konstitution des Kamphers," Braunschweig, 1901, p. 79).

The reactions of certain other compounds are illustrative of the mode of relieving the stress on the quaternary carbon atom, namely, the replacement of two single bonds by a double bond, which results in a smaller demand being made on the affinity of the quaternary carbon atom. Thus Wallach has shown that ethyl cyclohex-1-ol-1-acetate on hydrolysis is partly converted into cyclohexene, accompanied by some cyclohexanol (a hydrogen atom being displaced a group of large molecular volume). Further, saponification of the ester or of the acid is easily carried out, and leads to the formation of Δ^1 -cyclohexeneacetic acid or of carboxymethylenecyclohexane, according to the agent employed. Indeed, the initial condensation product of 1:5-dimethyl- Δ^1 -cyclohexen-3-ol cannot be isolated, but passes over at once into 1:5-dimethylcyclohexadienyl-3-acetic acid (*Annalen*, 1900, **314**, 147; 1902, **313**, 135; 1905, **343**, 40, **347**, 316; 1908, **360**, 26). That these reactions are not due to the presence of the hydroxyl group as is shown by a remarkable instance of an analogous kind, communicated to the author by Prof. J. F. Thorpe. Ethyl cyclohex-1-ene-1,1-dibromodiacetate (XIV) when boiled with dilute potassium hydroxide solution is converted into carboxymethylenecyclo-

hexane (XV), although when it is dropped into concentrated aqueous potassium hydroxide at 130° the acid (XVI) is produced.



(XIV.)

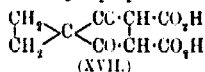


(XV.)

(XVI.)

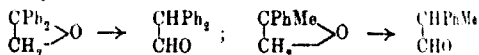
It is obvious that similar conditions will prevail when, as in the instances quoted above, three or four separate groups of large molecular volume are attached to a single carbon atom.

When, as in the molecule of *cyclopropane-1:1-dicarboxylic acid*, the cyclic structure is such that the "angle between two valencies of the quaternary carbon atom is less than 109°28', the effect just discussed will be intensified. Hence this acid and 1,1-dimethylcyclopropane are almost comparable with unsaturated compounds in the readiness with which they take part in reactive reactions, and the general conclusions of Kötze (*J. pr. Chem.* 1903, [ii], 68, 174) in regard to the derivatives of *cyclopropane* are in agreement with the statement just made. Further Radulescu's observation that the acid (XVII) is stable toward halogen hydrides (*Ber.*, 1909, 42, 2771; 1911, 44, 111) appears to be direct evidence in favour of the suggestion that the carbonyl groups are differently situated with regard to the central carbon atom from those in *cyclopropane-1:1-dicarboxylic acid*.



(XVII.)

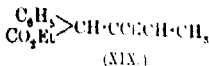
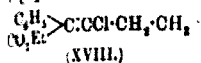
The rearrangement of derivatives of ethylene oxide into those of acetaldehyde are instances of a similar nature among heterocyclic compounds (Fourneau and Tiffeneau, *Compt. rend.*, 1905, 141, 662; Klages, *Ber.*, 1905, 38, 1969; Klages and Kessler, *Ber.*, 1905, 38, 1753):



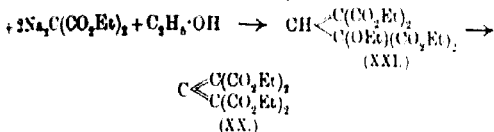
Both pairs of valencies attached to the carbon atom (that is, inclined to one another at angles less than 109°28', when such instability of the molecule may be expected. Thus the following table shows in the case of the central carbon atom of the $(\text{CH}_2)_x\text{C}(\text{CH}_2)_y$ compound, the angle between a valency of the $(x+1)$ -membered ring and one of the $(y+1)$ -membered ring:

$x+1$	2	3	4
2	180	150°	135°
3		139	128

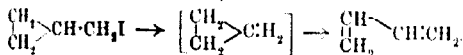
magnitude of these angles indicates that considerable amounts of unsatisfied affinity will exist between the zones corresponding with the valencies in question. Consequently, compounds of this type may be very difficult to isolate, and, when obtained, liable to undergo change. Thus Dimroth and Feichter were able to prepare an allene derivative from the compounds XVIII and XIX (*Ber.*, 1903, **36**, 2238; compare Ipatiev, *J. pr. Chem.*, [ii], **59**, 517):



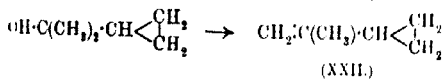
Early, ethyl allenetetracarboxylate (XX), which is only obtained by heating the initial product (XXI) of the action of diiodomalonate on carbon tetrachloride, absorbs two molecular portions of water when exposed in a moist atmosphere (Zelinski Doroshevski, *Ber.*, 1894, **27**, 3376):



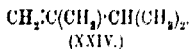
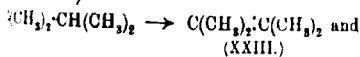
The action of alcoholic potassium hydroxide on diiodomethylenecyclopropane leads to the production of erythrene, presumably owing to rearrangement of methylenecyclopropane (Demjanov, *J. Russ. Chem. Soc.*, 1903, **35**, 375):



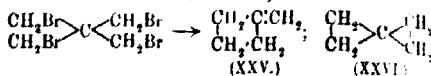
so, Favorski and Batalin have recently shown (*Ber.*, 1914, 1648) that Gustavson was mistaken in attributing the constitution of an ethylenecyclopropane to a compound he had prepared in an analogous manner (*Compt. rend.*, 1896, **123**, 242). Further, the product of dehydration of cyclopropyldimethylcarbinol is isopropylisopropylene (XXII), notwithstanding the fact that



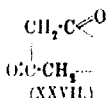
Isopropylcarbinol furnished the isomeric olefines (XXIII and XXIV) in the proportion of three to one (Henry, *Compt. rend.*, **147**, 557):



The production of methylenecyclobutane (XXV), in *spiro*pentane (XXVI), from tetrabromotetramethylmethane doubtless to be ascribed to similar causes (Demjanov, *Ber.* **41**, 915; Favorski and Batalin, *loc. cit.*; compare G. K. and Bulatov, *J. pr. Chem.*, 1896, [ii], **54**, 97; **56**, 53, *loc. cit.*; Zelinski, *Ber.*, 1913, **46**, 170):

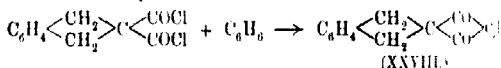


Neither this hydrocarbon nor cyclobutanone (Kishner, *J. Phys. Chem. Sov.*, 1905, **37**, 106; 1907, **39**, 922) exhibits a tendency towards the breaking down of the four-membered ring, but it is significant that cyclobutane-1:3-dione behaves as though it were represented by the formula XXVII (Chick and W. T., 1910, **97**, 1982):



The illustrations thus brought forward are not intended to be exhaustive, but suffice to indicate the aspect from which, in the author's opinion, the study of *spiro*-compounds should be approached. The quaternary carbon atom is not *per se* a source of weakness, this being conditioned by the distortion of its valence from their normal positions.

Finally, it may be mentioned that experiments have also been initiated with a view, on the one hand, to the synthesis of compound (XXVIII) by the condensation of the chloride of hydriodene-2:2-dicarboxylic acid with benzene, and, on the other, to



preparation of reduction products of ethyl cyclohexanone from which *spiro*-compounds might be prepared. The investigation in this direction has, however, only just been commenced, and the measure of success attained is indicated in the experimental part of this paper.

EXPERIMENTAL.

Reduction of Ethyl Hydriodene-2:2-dicarboxylate

Sodium (30 grams), cut into pieces the size of a pea, was put in a large flask, fitted with a long, upright condenser and a funnel, and the flask was heated to 80° in an oil-bath. A solution

absolute alcohol of ethyl hydrindenedicarboxylate (23 grams), freshly purified by distillation under diminished pressure (c.c.), was then run from the tap-funnel on to the sodium as far as possible, consistent with efficient action of the condenser. The temperature of the oil-bath was then raised to 130° , and a larger quantity of alcohol (100 c.c.) gradually added in the course of 24 hours. At the end of five hours from the experiment any unreacted ester was hydrolysed by the gradual addition of water to the mixture. The product was then cooled, considerably diluted, treated with sufficient sulphuric acid to leave the solution distinctly alkaline. By exhaustive extraction with ether the mixture of reaction products was removed, whilst hydrindenemonocarboxylic acid (5.5 grams) could be recovered by subsequent acidification of the aqueous solution.

The ethereal extracts, after treatment in the usual manner, yielded an oil, which was distilled under diminished pressure. In this manner a large fraction (5.5 grams) was obtained, which boiled at about $140^{\circ}/11$ mm. and solidified at the ordinary temperature.

Hydroxymethylhydrindene (III), obtained in this way, has a characteristic agreeable odour, and consists of prismatic crystals, which melt at 33° and boil at 139 – $140^{\circ}/11$ mm. It is readily soluble in most organic solvents, but only sparingly so in light petroleum (b. p. 40 – 50°), and may be crystallised from this solvent.

III gave 0.4424 CO_2 and 0.1078 H_2O . $\text{C} = 80.98$; $\text{H} = 8.04$.

$\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{12}\text{O}$ requires $\text{C} = 81.07$; $\text{H} = 8.11$ per cent.

Phenylurethane, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CH}(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{O}\cdot\text{CO}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$, was prepared by heating a solution of molecular proportions of the alcohol and phenylcarbimide in light petroleum (b. p. 90 – 110°).

On crystallisation, it melted at 99.5° .

III gave 10.2 c.c. N_2 at 11° and 755 mm. $\text{N} = 5.59$.

$\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{17}\text{O}_2\text{N}$ requires $\text{N} = 5.24$ per cent.

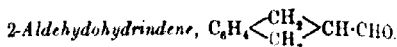
Hydroxy-2:2-dimethylhydrindene (I) was obtained by distilling the united residues from four of the above preparations of *oxymethylhydrindene*. A colourless oil passed over at about 110 mm., and rapidly solidified. On the addition of light petroleum (b. p. 90 – 110°) to its solution in ethyl alcohol, small, white prisms, melting at 112.5° , separated. The yield was 0.5 g.

I gave 0.4266 CO_2 and 0.1090 H_2O . $\text{C} = 74.20$; $\text{H} = 7.73$.

$\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_{14}\text{O}_2$ requires $\text{C} = 74.16$; $\text{H} = 7.86$ per cent.

Reduction of Ethyl Hydrindene-2-carboxylate.

A solution of the ester (20 grams) in alcohol (100 c.c.) was added to sodium (18 grams) in precisely the same manner as before, described for the previous case, alcohol (20 c.c.) being subsequently added. The yield of carbinol was 8.5 grams.



2-Hydroxymethylhydrindene (10 grams), having been added to a solution of chromic acid (4.2 grams) in 10 per cent. sulphuric acid (75 grams), the mixture was heated on the water bath for 4 hours. The ethereal extract of the cooled solution was washed with sodium carbonate solution, and then shaken with concentrated sodium hydrogen sulphite solution. The aldehyde, isolated from this solution in the usual manner by decomposition with sodium hydrogen carbonate, was a fairly mobile oil, boiling at $122^\circ/12$ mm., which did not solidify. It readily underwent oxidation on exposure, and its odour also characterised it as an aliphatic aldehyde:

0.1440 gave 0.4325 CO_2 and 0.0878 H_2O . $C=81.91$; $H=6.85$.
 $C_{10}H_{10}O$ requires $C=82.19$; $H=6.85$ per cent.

The semicarbazone, prepared in the usual manner, readily dissolved in alcohol, and separated from this solvent in radiating plates of small needles melting at 174° :

0.1120 gave 20.6 c.c. N_2 at 17° and 730 mm. $N=20.59$.
 $C_{11}H_{13}ON_3$ requires $N=20.69$ per cent.

2-Bromomethylhydrindene (IV).

This compound was easily prepared by heating a solution of 2-hydroxymethylhydrindene (35 grams) in glacial acetic acid saturated at 0° with hydrogen bromide (50 c.c.), at 100° for three and a-half hours.

The compound boiled at $132^\circ/11$ mm., and solidified at higher temperatures to masses of magnificent prisms, melting at 174° . Its odour was characteristic and reminiscent of aniseed:

0.1742 gave 0.3646 CO_2 and 0.0812 H_2O . $C=57.08$; $H=5.21$.
 $C_{10}H_{11}Br$ requires $C=56.87$; $H=5.21$ per cent.

It was recovered unchanged after being boiled for ten hours with amalgamated zinc and dilute hydrochloric acid.

Reaction of 2-Bromomethylhydrindene with Ethyl Malonate.

ethyl malonate (6.4 grams) and the bromo-compound (8.4 grams) were successively added to a solution of sodium (0.9 gram) in alcohol (c.c.). At the temperature of the water-bath a separation of sodium bromide soon commenced, and after ten hours the product was worked up in the usual manner. By distillation under reduced pressure, well-defined fractions of ethyl malonate, 2-bromomethylhydrindene, and finally of the desired ester (7.5 grams) were obtained.

Ethyl 2-hydrindylmethylmalonate (VI) is a colourless liquid, which boils at $211^{\circ}/15$ mm., and does not solidify even when cooled in freezing mixture:

1594 gave 0.4092 CO_2 and 0.1074 H_2O . C = 70.00; H = 7.48.

$\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}_4$ requires C = 70.35; H = 7.59 per cent.

The corresponding acid was prepared by hydrolysis with alcoholic sodium hydroxide, and separated from its solution in alcohol in the form of small, transparent plates, melting at 174° :

1146 gave 0.4285 CO_2 and 0.0965 H_2O . C = 66.93; H = 6.14.

$\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{18}\text{O}_4$ requires C = 66.66; H = 6.00 per cent.

Sodium, calcium, lead, tin, and ferric salts are insoluble in water, whilst its magnesium, copper, and cobalt salts are soluble in water.

The hydrazide, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_7\langle\text{CH}_2\rangle\text{CH}\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{CH}(\text{CO}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{NH})_2$, crystals from alcoholic solution in silky needles melting at 177° :

105 gave 35.6 c.c. N_2 at 23° and 747 mm. N = 21.6.

$\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{18}\text{O}_2\text{N}_4$ requires N = 21.4 per cent.

Hydrindylpropionic acid, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_7\langle\text{CH}_2\rangle\text{CH}\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{H}$,

was prepared by heating the above acid at 190° until the evolution of carbon dioxide had ceased. It was readily soluble in benzene, sparingly so in hot light petroleum (b. p. $90-110^{\circ}$), and separated from a mixture of these solvents in small plates melting at 17° :

1535 gave 0.4902 CO_2 and 0.1166 H_2O . C = 76.05; H = 7.37.

1534 required 14.6 c.c. $N/10\text{-NaOH}$. Equivalent = 189.7.

H_{11}O_2 requires C = 75.79; H = 7.37 per cent. M.W. = 190.

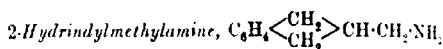
Sodium and magnesium salts are soluble in cold water, whilst the calcium salt is sparingly soluble, and separates from its solution in water in needles. Its ferric, copper, and cobalt salts are insoluble in hot water, its lead and tin salts sparingly so, and its zinc salt turns yellow when boiled with water.

2-Phthaliminomethylhydrindene (VII).

An intimate mixture of 2-bromomethylhydrindene (10 grams) with potassium phthalimide (9 grams) was heated at 180° for nine hours in an apparatus provided with a reflux tube. The mixture solidified on cooling, and required to be finely powdered before adherent oily matter could be removed by repeated extraction with hot light petroleum (b. p. 90—110°). Potassium bromide having then been removed by extraction with hot water, the residue was crystallised from glacial acetic acid. The compound separates in small, slender prisms, which were usually somewhat discoloured and melted at 174°. The yield was 57 per cent. of the theoretical, and was not improved by carrying out the condensation in the presence of sodium iodide:

0.1984 gave 9.0 c.c. N_2 at 16° and 752 mm. $N=5.36$

$C_{18}H_{15}O_2N$ requires $N=5.05$ per cent.



Phthaliminomethylhydrindene (8 grams) was heated with concentrated hydrochloric acid (35 c.c.) at 180—200° for six hours, and the product was then treated in the usual manner. A large proportion of the phthalimino-derivative remained unchanged; four such experiments furnished a sufficient quantity of the base, boiling at 248°, to permit of its characterisation.

The *hydrochloride* separated from its solution in dilute hydrochloric acid in thin plates with a satiny lustre, melting and decomposing at 258—260°:

0.1890 gave 12.4 c.c. N_2 at 15° and 751 mm. $N=7.68$

$C_{10}H_{13}N \cdot HCl$ requires $N=7.63$ per cent.

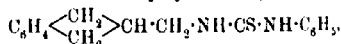
The *platinichloride* was obtained as a yellow powder, decomposed at 233°:

0.3614 gave 0.1008 Pt. Pt=27.89.

$(C_{10}H_{13}N)_2 \cdot H_2PtCl_6$ requires Pt=27.70 per cent.

The *iodide*, *sulphate*, *oxalate*, and *phosphate* are readily soluble in water, whilst the *carbonate* (prismatic needles) and *dichromate* (orange, prismatic needles) are soluble in hot water.

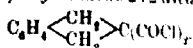
2-Phenylthiocarbamidomethylhydrindene,



crystallises from alcohol in hexagonal plates melting at 145°

0.1760 gave 15.5 c.c. N_2 at 16° and 745 mm. $N=10.20$

$C_{17}H_{18}N_2S$ requires $N=9.93$ per cent.

The Chloride of Hydrindene-2:2-dicarboxylic Acid,

This compound was prepared by the interaction of the calculated amounts of hydrindenedicarboxylic acid and phosphorus pentachloride. It boiled at $173-175^\circ/20$ mm., and solidified at the binary temperature. It crystallised from light petroleum (b. p. -80°) in clusters of rectangular plates, which melted at 45° , and did not exhibit any marked tendency towards decomposition on contact with the atmosphere:

0.516 gave 0.2952 AgCl. Cl = 29.02.

$\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_8\text{O}_2\text{Cl}_2$ requires Cl = 29.22 per cent.

An attempt was made to condense this compound with benzene under the conditions employed by Freund (*Annalen*, 1910, **373**), in the case of diethylmalonyl chloride. It was found that, as in the latter case, the liquor obtained by steam distillation of the dist was coloured green, and a small quantity of golden yellow solids was obtained by extraction with ether. There can, therefore, be no doubt that the reaction took the desired course.

Reduction of Ethyl cycloHexanodiacetate.

This operation was carried out in the manner already described in the case of ethyl hydrindenedicarboxylate. The oil obtained was indefinitely, but small quantities of solid matter separated in the later fractions, boiling at $195-200^\circ/21$ mm. This product was sparingly soluble in light petroleum (b. p. $60-80^\circ$), and barely so in benzene. By crystallisation from this solvent crystals, melting at 123° , were obtained:

0.66 gave 0.2848 CO_2 and 0.1046 H_2O . C = 70.23; H = 10.51.

$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{O}_2$ requires C = 70.06; H = 10.06 per cent.

The author hopes to prosecute his investigations in the direction indicated as soon as circumstances permit a resumption of the experiments.

THE UNIVERSITY,
SHEFFIELD.

CCLII.—*Studies in the Succinic Acid Series. Part II.
Anilides and Anilic Acids, and the Effect of
Steric Hindrance on the Formation of the Anilic Acid*

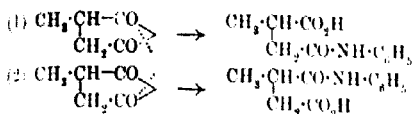
By GEORGE FRANCIS MORRELL.

THE method of Bouveault and Blanc (*Bull. Soc. chim.* [iii], **33**, 879) for the conversion of acids into the corresponding alcohols by reduction of their esters in alcoholic solution with sodium frequently gives very unsatisfactory results with the dibasic acids of the aliphatic series (compare Harries, *Annalen*, [iii] **383**, 167). The original intention of studying the reduction of other open-chain derivatives of dibasic acids was hindered by the lack of suitable methods for preparing them in quantity. This was especially the case with the derivatives of the succinic acid, where ring-formation takes place so readily, and the open-chain derivative forms either a small fraction of the product, or is entirely absent.

The present communication deals with an investigation of the methods and conditions requisite for the production of a good yield of certain of the open-chain aniline and ammonium derivatives of succinic acid and its homologues. Whilst with aliphatic succinic acids the neutral anilides were, under all conditions, produced only in traces by the action of aniline on the acid, with succinyl anil was generally the sole product, in the case of succinyl anil the aniline could, by repeated treatment of the succinyl anil, be prepared in excellent yield by the action of aniline under specified conditions. The formation of the five-membered ring is, therefore, apparently facilitated by the presence of such substituents in the succinic acid. Where the "direct method" of preparation failed, good results were obtained by the action of aniline on the acid chlorides.

The anilic acids are of importance on account of their use in the characterisation of the dibasic acid by Auwers' method. In this investigation has here been limited to methylsuccinamic acid as the others have already been fully described by other workers. From an unsymmetrically substituted succinic acid, two isomeric anilic acids can theoretically be derived, but although succinylanilic acid has been prepared in different ways by other investigators, only one of these possible isomerides has ever been isolated. Arppe and Biffi (*Annalen*, 1854, **90**, 111; 91, 111) obtained an anilic acid, melting at 147°, from the anilide by heating the ring with alkali. Anschütz (*Annalen*, 1888, **246**, 120, 24)

likewise prepared the anilic acid both by Arppe's method and by two methods of his own, namely, the reduction of mesaconic acid, and the action of aniline on methylsuccinic anhydride. In all cases the acid obtained melted at 143° . Later, Bone and Franklin (T., 1899, **75**, 860) give $148-149^{\circ}$ as the melting point, and specifically state that they were unable to isolate any isomeric acid. Auwers (*Annalen*, 1896, **292**, 195) ascribes the isolation of only one anilic acid to the influence of the unsymmetrical molecule, which thus determines the sense in which aniline is added to the anhydride, or sodium hydroxide to anil. Thus, for example, reaction (1) might proceed to the exclusion of reaction (2):



In support of this idea, he states that in the case of methylsuccinic acid, where the lack of symmetry is not so pronounced, isomeric anilic acids were isolated.

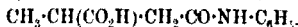
In preparing methylsuccinanilic acid, whether from the anil, from the anhydride, two points of interest were noted which tend to indicate the incorrectness of Auwers' and Bone's assumptions and the existence of two isomerides in the product. It was noted that the anilic acid was always precipitated as an oil, which solidified slowly on keeping, and that never more than 40 per cent. of the theoretical yield of the acid, melting at 149° , could be isolated. Both of these observations were quite variance with those made in the otherwise perfectly analogous case of succinanilic acid. It seemed scarcely possible that the sense of an isomeric acid could have been overlooked by so many investigators, and, indeed, the evaporation of the aqueous ether liquors to dryness yielded only a very soluble, viscid mass, which, however, was sufficient in amount to account for the deficient yield. It was not until it was discovered that both acids in question were, in aqueous solution, extremely sensitive to heat, being converted into the above-mentioned viscid products, that an explanation was forthcoming. So quickly does this transformation occur that the acids cannot even be crystallised undisturbed from hot aqueous solution, as has hitherto been the case. On attempting to recrystallise a quantity of the pure substance from water, only 40 per cent. was recovered, and, moreover, its melting point was 10° lower than when crystallised from organic solvents.

By carefully avoiding anything more than the slightest warming when dealing with aqueous solutions of the acids, the two structural isomerides were satisfactorily isolated. They were purified by taking advantage of their different solubilities in water and in chloroform. The less soluble methylsuccinanilic acid melts at 159°, and is the main constituent of Anschütz's acid (m. p. 159°). Its isomeride is much more soluble both in water and in chloroform, and melts at 123°. Both acids, on being heated above the melting points, lose water, and are converted into methylsuccinimide.

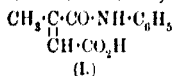
No solution has been arrived at of the problem as to which of the acids the constitution



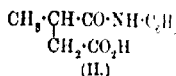
must be assigned, and to which the alternative



The matter is closely dependent on the constitution of the mesaconanilic acid which, on reduction, yields the methylsuccinanilic acid melting at 159° (Anschütz, *Ber.*, 1890, **23**, 891). Based on an argument on an erroneous observation of Reissert (*Ber.*, 1889, **22**, 1370) on the oxidation products of mesaconanilic acid, Anschütz ascribed the constitution (I) to this acid, and, consequently, the constitution (II) to his methylsuccinanilic acid melting at 123° (*Annalen*, 1888, **246**, 117):



(I.)



(II.)

Nevertheless, after revising Reissert's work, he convinced himself that no light whatever could be thrown on the constitution of mesaconanilic acid, or of methylsuccinanilic acid, as the results of oxidation experiments (*Ber.*, 1889, **22**, 747; and *Annalen*, 1889, **254**, 137).

It is noteworthy that during the whole of the controversy of these anilic acids between Reissert and Anschütz, the melting point of 143° of methylsuccinanilic acid was not challenged by either of them. During this present investigation specimens of this substance, crystallised from water, have been obtained, melting at 143—145°, and having all the appearance of individual substance. In the first place, many of Anschütz's melting points are somewhat low, as has been pointed out by Auwers, owing to the method of heating which he employed, whereby an incomplete composition of the anilic acid sets in at temperatures below the true melting point. Secondly, these anilic acids should not be crystallised from water, for although succinanilic acid itself was to be but little affected, yet others are rapidly attacked. Methylsuccinanilic acid (m. p. 159°), for example, has never been obtained

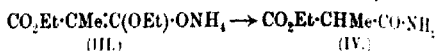
by crystallisation from water with a melting point higher than -150° .

The only way open for the preparation of the neutral amides succinic acid and its homologues is by the action of ammonia on the esters. Other methods lead either to the formation of a preponderance of the unsymmetrical amide (this vol., p. 1737) or of the imide. The rate of formation of the amides from the esters and the percentage yield obtained has been found to depend on the ester used and on the extent of substitution in the methylene groups adjacent to the carboxyl, on spatial influence in other cases. The methyl esters react much more quickly than the ethyl esters, although the yield is about the same in each case. With substituted methylene groups, that is, with succinic ester itself, the reaction proceeds the most rapidly, and the introduction of methyl groups produces a marked decrease, not only in the velocity of formation, but also in the yield. The reaction has been carried out in a number of different ways for the sake of comparison, with the methyl and ethyl esters at ordinary and at elevated temperatures, and the most satisfactory results have invariably been obtained by allowing the methyl esters to react at the ordinary temperature with concentrated aqueous ammonia, but instead of allowing the liquids to remain in two layers, or using a shaking flask just sufficient alcohol was added to bring the ester into solution. In the succinic series this method has given better results than E. Fischer's process, devised for the malonic series, in which the ethyl esters are heated with alcoholic ammonia in a sealed tube at 130° , generally for twenty-six hours (*Ber.*, 1902, 344). A comparison of the results obtained in the various experiments, combined with Fischer's results in the malonic series, is interesting:

Acid.	Percentage yield of amide using alcoholic ammonia in bomb.		Percentage yield of amide using aqueous ammonia in cold.	
	Methyl ester.	Ethyl ester.	Methyl ester.	Ethyl ester.
acetic	—	98	—	—
phenylmalonic	—	40	—	—
malonic	—	53	—	—
dimalonic	—	61	—	—
methylmalonic	—	2.6	—	—
phenylmalonic	—	0.0	—	—
acetic	63	40	80 (3 days)	80 (12 days)
phenylsuccinic	33	—	52 (5 ")	—
dimethylsuccinic	—	—	5 (30 ")	—
dimethylsuccinic	—	—	2 (30 ")	—

The yield of amide in the case of succinic acid is therefore comparable with that obtained with methylmalonic acid, and the sub-

stitution of one only of the four methylene hydrogen atoms by a methyl group produces a marked retardation in velocity and diminution in yield. Fischer suggested (*loc. cit.*) that the reaction with tetramethylsuccinic acid would probably yield only a trace of amide, but it is now evident that this is already the case with dimethylsuccinic acids, the amides of which have now been prepared for the first time. These results, whilst quite in harmony with Fischer's hypothesis that the methylene hydrogen is involved in the reaction in the formation of a preliminary ammonium salt, or product, of the type (III) which decomposes into



amide (IV), yet show that steric hindrance must be an important factor in the case, for there are still in the dimethylsuccinic acid two methylene hydrogen atoms similar to the one in methylsuccinic acid, yet the velocity of the amide-formation and the yield of amide are enormously greater in the latter case, whereas if the presence of an unsubstituted methylene hydrogen atom were the sole retarding factor we should expect the acids to behave similarly, at least that more than mere traces of dimethylsuccinamide would be produced. Moreover, the results with the constitutionally *cis*- and *trans*-dimethylsuccinic acids are different, the *cis*-acid reacting more slowly than the *trans*-acid, as one would expect from considerations of spatial interference. The conclusion is therefore drawn that the accumulation of substituent groups near the esterified carboxyl group hinders the reaction with ammonia, although some methylene hydrogen is still unsubstituted.

EXPERIMENTAL.

Succinanilide.

Succinanilide was obtained by Menschutkin (*Analen*, **162**, 187) in 25 per cent. yield by the direct action of aniline on succinic acid. It can be obtained in better yield by the action of succinyl chloride on a solution of aniline in benzene (see this vol., p. 1736, and Dunlop and Cummer, *J. Amer. Chem. Soc.* **1903**, **25**, 612). Since this method involves the previous preparation of succinyl chloride, which is itself obtained at most in 15 per cent. yield, the following direct method of preparation from succinic acid is preferred.

Twenty grams of succinic acid were heated for three to four hours at 200° (thermometer in the liquid) with 40 grams of aniline. A very short reflux air-condenser was used, so that only the aniline was condensed, the water generated by the reaction being allowed

escape, as it was found that if condensed and returned to the temperature of the boiling mixture eventually sank as low as 125°, and the unsatisfactory yield described by Menschutkin was obtained. The product was poured into dilute acid, and when the precipitate of anilide and anil was collected and warmed with an excess of dilute aqueous sodium hydroxide, whereby the anilide was dissolved as sodium succinanilate, but the anilide was not attacked. The latter was collected, and after one crystallisation from alcohol was quite pure. From the aqueous solution of the succinanilate dilute hydrochloric acid precipitated succinanilic acid in almost pure condition. The above amount of succinic acid gave 10 grams of anilide and 25 grams of anilic acid, an almost theoretical yield.

Succinanilide crystallises from alcohol in short, stout needles, melting at 230° (Menschutkin gives 227°). It is quite insoluble in water, and is not acted on by boiling dilute alkali hydroxide. It is soluble in about 35 parts of boiling alcohol, and 460 parts at 16°, and almost insoluble in the other common organic solvents.

Conversion of Succinanilic Acid into Succinanilide.

The anilic acid obtained as a by-product in the above preparation can be readily converted into the anilide by heating with 75 per cent. of its weight of aniline in sealed tubes at 110–115° for forty-eight hours. The product is a mixture of anilide and anil with excess of aniline, similar to that obtained in the direct preparation, and the anilide is separated by treatment with hydrochloric acid and then with sodium hydroxide exactly as there described. From 20 grams of anilic acid 12 grams of anilide were obtained, and 8 grams of anilic acid recovered (compare Tingle and Cram, *Amer. Chem. J.*, 1907, **37**, 597, who obtained only a 25 per cent. yield after five days' heating in an open vessel). By repeating this process with the recovered anilic acid it is eventually almost wholly transformed, giving a total yield of about 30 grams of anilide from the 20 grams of succinic acid originally taken.

Methylsuccinanilide.

This has been briefly described in a previous paper (this vol., 1936). Unlike succinanilide, it could be obtained only in traces under the action of aniline on either the free methylsuccinic acid or anilic acid. Under all experimental conditions tried, ring closure ensued with the almost exclusive production of the anilide. In contrast with succinanilide it is very readily soluble in alcohol, and fairly soluble in ethyl acetate, sparingly so in chloroform, and soluble in water or benzene.

Methylsuccinanil.

This was obtained in almost theoretical yield by an improvement of Kling's process (*Ber.*, 1897, 30, 3040). Ten grams of succinic acid were gently boiled for a few minutes with 9 gms of aniline in an inverted retort. The retort was then reversed and the mixture distilled as rapidly as possible. No apparent carbonisation occurred, and the distillate solidified to a hard mass of the anil, which after one crystallisation from much boiling water formed clusters of tiny needles melting at 109—110° (Anson gives 104°, and Kling 107°).

Methylsuccinanil is very readily soluble in alcohol, ethyl acetate, chloroform, or benzene. It is soluble in about 40 parts of boiling water, and to the extent of 0.28 per cent. in water at 10°.

Methylsuccinanilic Acids.

An aqueous solution of the sodium salts of the two isomers was prepared either by dissolving the product of the action of aniline on methylsuccinic anhydride in cold sodium hydroxide solution, or methylsuccinanil in aqueous sodium hydroxide solution with gentle heat. The isolation of the two isomerides was accomplished by fractional precipitation of the acids from this solution combined with fractional crystallisation from chloroform. In experiment 7.7 grams of methylsuccinanil were dissolved in 100 c.c. of 2*N* sodium hydroxide, and to the filtered solution hydrochloric acid was slowly added with constant agitation. No oil was precipitated, but a clear solution was obtained, from which in a few moments crystals of the anilic acid separated. The following fractions were obtained: (1) After the addition of 20 c.c. of 2*N*-hydrochloric acid 1.9 grams were deposited, melting at 158—159°, which, when recrystallised twice from ethyl acetate, melted at 158—159°. (2) On adding a further 10 c.c. of 2*N*-hydrochloric acid, 2.8 grams were deposited, melting at 95—135°, which was extracted with cold chloroform. The residue (1.3 grams) consisted of the acid melting at 159°, and after crystallisation from ethyl acetate melted at this temperature. The solution contained the isomeric acid, and it was added to the chloroform solution (see below). (3) On keeping overnight, 1.0 gram of material separated, melting at 85—95°. This was the fairly pure isomeric acid, and was almost entirely soluble in cold chloroform.

The united chloroform solutions were precipitated with petroleum, and the precipitate (m. p. 105—108°) was purified by a process of alternate precipitation from the aqueous solution of the sodium salt, and recrystallisation from chloroform. This pro-

successful because the difference in the solubility of the isomers in water was not so great as in chloroform. Eventually a product was obtained melting at 123° , which consisted of broad, acute, microscopic needles, and further treatment produced no variation in the melting point.

The less soluble acid appeared to form from 40 to 45 per cent. of the total product, but, of course, the more soluble acid could not be isolated in a pure condition in quantity anywhere approaching the amount (55–60 per cent.) in which it was present.

In order to remove all doubt as to the chemical individuality of these two acids, the following data were obtained.

Methylsuccinamic acid, m. p. 159° , crystallises from ethyl alcohol in fairly broad, flat needles. It is very readily soluble in chloroform, moderately so in ethyl acetate, and very sparingly so in water (about 0.05 per cent. at 18°) or water (0.09 per cent. at 25°). When heated above its melting point it is converted into anilic acid, melting at 109° :

0.1011 gave 0.2361 CO_2 and 0.0597 H_2O . C = 63.69; H = 6.56.

0.1566 „ 9.2 c.c. N_2 at 15° and 749 mm. N = 6.85.

$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{15}\text{O}_3\text{N}$ requires C = 63.76; H = 6.28; N = 6.76 per cent.

Methylsuccinamic acid, m. p. 123° , crystallises from chloroform in broad, microscopic needles. It is extremely readily soluble in alcohol or ethyl acetate, very readily so in hot chloroform, and chloroform solution contains 1.6 per cent. at 16° . It is fairly readily soluble in hot benzene, insoluble in light petroleum, and sparingly soluble in water (1.2 per cent. at 15°). When heated above its melting point it is converted into the anilic acid melting at 109° . A mixture with the anilic acid melting at 159° melted at 105° – 108° , and when this mixture was recrystallised fern-like clusters of the admixture type were obtained:

0.1037 gave 0.2225 CO_2 and 0.0554 H_2O . C = 63.43; H = 6.43.

0.1294 „ 7.1 c.c. N_2 at 16° and 760 mm. N = 6.94.

$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{15}\text{O}_3\text{N}$ requires C = 63.76; H = 6.28; N = 6.76 per cent.

Succinamide.

This compound can be obtained only in minute quantity by the action of ammonia on succinyl chloride. It was prepared, however, in a variety of ways indicated in the introductory portion, and in 10 per cent. yield by the action of concentrated aqueous ammonia on methyl succinate, just sufficient alcohol being added to the mixture to bring the ester into solution. After three days the reaction was complete, and the precipitated amide was found to be

almost pure without further treatment. It crystallises from water in short, stout needles, melting and decomposing at 225°. This is considerably higher than the melting point usually given, and if the temperature rises slowly a much lower value is usually obtained. One part of the amide dissolves in 15 parts of boiling water, and in 300 parts of water at 15°. It is almost insoluble in alcohol and other organic solvents.

Methylsuccinamide.

This was prepared most readily in the same way as succinamide by the action of concentrated aqueous ammonia on a solution of the methyl ester of the acid. After remaining for five days at ordinary temperature no more amide was deposited, and the yield then amounted to 52 per cent. of the theoretical. Methylsuccinamide crystallises from water in short needles, melting and decomposing at 225°. It is almost insoluble in alcohol and other solvents, but soluble in about 50 parts of water at 15°, and more soluble in hot water.

cis- and trans-Dimethylsuccinamide.

[With SIDNEY HENRY GROENEWOUD.]

The only mention of a dimethylsuccinamide in the literature is by E. von Meyer (*J. pr. Chem.*, 1882, [ii], **26**, 359), who stated that he prepared it by the action of ammonia on the only product obtained by the bromination of cyanethine. The substance was described as crystallising in fine, pyramidal, pointed prisms, and did not melt at 260°. That it could really have possessed the constitution assigned to it by von Meyer seems impossible, as these properties agree in no way with those of either the *cis* or *trans*-amide obtained by the method which admits of no doubt, namely, from the respective esters by the action of ammonia. It seems, moreover, improbable that the symmetrical amides could be obtained in any appreciable quantity by the action of ammonia on the acid bromides, even if such were present in the oil obtained from cyanethine.

cis-Dimethylsuccinamide was obtained by the action of concentrated aqueous ammonia on dimethyl *cis*-dimethylsuccinate (200°), prepared according to Zelinski's method (*Ber.*, 1904, **37**, 646), sufficient alcohol being added to make the alcoholic part of the resulting solution about 33 per cent. After being kept one month at the ordinary temperature 0.06 gram of amide separated in well-formed, triclinic prisms from a solution containing 3 grams of the ester. The mother liquors yielded on evaporation

and consisting apparently in the main of unchanged ester, but treating this a second time with ammonia no less than 0.6 gram crystals separated in fourteen days. The crystals obtained by these operations, after washing with alcohol, were quite pure without further treatment. They melted and decomposed at 244° , and were insoluble in alcohol or cold water, but fairly readily soluble in water:

0.951 gave 16 c.c. N_2 at 22° and 767 mm. $N = 19.49$.

$C_6H_{12}O_2N_2$ requires $N = 19.44$ per cent.

trans-Dimethylsuccinamide was obtained in a precisely analogous manner to the *cis*-amide by substituting the *trans*- for the *cis*-methyl ester in the experiment described above. Under similar conditions 3 grams of the *trans*-ester yielded a larger amount of amide in the first treatment, namely, 0.15 gram. It was deposited in thin prisms of similar appearance, and solubilities in alcohol and water, as the *cis*-isomeride. It melted and decomposed at 238° :

0.955 gave 18.6 c.c. N_2 at 20° and 760 mm. $N = 19.63$.

$C_6H_{12}O_2N_2$ requires $N = 19.44$ per cent.

Both amides were decomposed extremely slowly by boiling hydrochloric acid, more rapidly by boiling potassium hydroxide solution. Unfortunately the quantities at our disposal were too small for the purification products to be satisfactorily identified, but since the bases regenerated their corresponding acids on hydrolysis and it is nearly improbable that the action of cold ammonia would induce any change of configuration, it may be confidently assumed that the amides, also, yield on hydrolysis the respective acids from which they were obtained.

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III. *A Magnetic Study of Compounds of Water and of Aqueous Solutions.*

By FRANCIS WILLIAM GRAY and WILLIAM MILNE BIRSE.

The object of the work described in the present paper was to ascertain whether magnetic measurements can throw any light on the state of combination of water in compounds of different types, especially to measure the magnetic properties of water in aqueous salt solutions, (2) hydrated crystals such as those of fer sulphate, and (3) organic acids, such as benzoic and lactic acids, which may be regarded as compounds of their hydrates with water.

In all these classes instances were found in which the law of additivity, in the molecular sense, is obeyed. Thus aqueous solutions of potassium ferricyanide obey the law of additivity throughout the whole range of concentration, and yield a more trustworthy value for the susceptibility of potassium ferricyanide than is obtained from the solid.

In the case of copper sulphate, if it is assumed that the susceptibility of the water is not affected appreciably by the union, it is found that the paramagnetic susceptibility of the anhydrous copper sulphate molecule is increased by about 11.5 per cent when it unites with one molecule of water. Further addition of water molecules to form the higher hydrate has no marked influence on the susceptibility.*

In the case of organic acids it is found that additivity, in the molecular sense, holds for benzoic, phthalic, maleic, and fumaric acids, but not for succinic and camphoric acids.

Aqueous solutions of potassium ferricyanide obey very nearly the equation $\frac{x}{10.07} + \frac{y}{0.72} = 1$, where x = the weight of potassium ferricyanide in 100 grams of aqueous solution and $y \times 10^{-6}$ denotes the susceptibility of a solution of percentage y . It is not usual for an aqueous solution to follow so closely the additive law. Indeed, many of the older determinations of the susceptibility of salts are quite valueless, since they were based on determinations of solutions of single concentrations on the basis of additivity, and the value obtained in this way varies usually according to the concentration of the solution. Olsch and Moles (*Arch. Sci. phys. nat.*, 1913, [iv], **35**, 425) have shown how the atomic susceptibility of iron varies with the concentration in solutions of ferric chloride, ferric nitrate, and sodium ferripyrophosphate.

In the magnetic study of solutions the following effects are to be looked for: (1) ionisation, (2) union of two or more molecules of magnets to yield an astatic system not oriented in a magnetic field, (3) formation of hydrates and the stability of the same, (4) polymerisation. In addition, care must be taken to ascertain whether or not the susceptibility of a solution changes with time. Instances have been found of solutions originally additive which showed a gradual departure from additivity. Heydweiller (*Ber. Deut. physikal. Ges.*, 1913, **15**, 112) gives results for solutions of ferric chloride, manganese sulphate, and nitrate, nickel nitrate, chromic sulphate, chromic nitrate, and cobalt nitrate. He observed a maximum in the curves for the relation between concentration and magnetic

* It is well known that similar differences have been observed in the specific heats and heats of hydration for the different water molecules in polyhydrates.

ceptibility. This maximum may be produced by the joint action of effect (1), which causes increase of susceptibility, and effect (2), which causes diminution of susceptibility. Oxley discusses effect (3) in *Comb. Phil. Soc.*, 1912, **16**, 421), and points out that the rate may be so unstable as not to affect the magnetic properties. Wiedemann claims from magnetic measurements to be able to calculate the degree of hydrolysis of ferric chloride in aqueous solutions. In aqueous solutions of potassium ferricyanide which obey the additive law none of the above effects can be detected by the present method.

Let $\frac{x}{10.07} - \frac{y}{0.72} = 1$ and putting $x = 100$, we obtain for the susceptibility of potassium ferricyanide the value $+6.43 \times 10^{-6}$. This is 10.97, or very nearly 11 magnetons per molecule. Weiss *Abh. Landolt*, 1911, **152**, 367) gives 10.41 magnetons.

The susceptibility of solid potassium ferricyanide (powder) was found to be $+6.77 \times 10^{-6}$, the error-range being ± 0.16 , or about 2 per cent. (when calculated by the average deviation method). The figure, 6.77, gives 11.26 magnetons per molecule.

Debye (*Ann. Physik*, 1913, [iv], **41**, 829) points out, in the case of paramagnetic powders, that the molecules at the surface of the particles are most easily oriented in the magnetic field. An increase in the size of the particles causes a diminution in the total surface, therefore in the number of surface molecules, and thus a fall in the susceptibility. This was found to hold for powdered potassium ferricyanide.

On the other hand, the increased density which accompanies increased size of particles tends to an increased value for the susceptibility.

On the whole, therefore, with potassium ferricyanide, the susceptibility obtained from solutions is more trustworthy than that from powders, because with solutions the precision is much better, the law of additivity is obeyed throughout the whole range of concentrations, and, further, the result implies an integral number of magnetons per molecule.

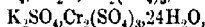
In order to account for the magnetic difference between copper sulphate monohydrate and copper sulphate pentahydrate, we suggest the following hypothesis: that the water-molecules are arranged in space round the outside of the copper sulphate molecule, one in the vicinity of each oxygen atom and one in the vicinity of each copper atom. The last-mentioned water-molecule is the only one that causes deviation from the additivity of the magnetic properties. When two copper atoms of two anhydrous copper sulphate molecules are near one another they hamper one another's movement in the magnetic field. Thus the orientation of the copper

atom is not so free in the anhydride as in the monohydrate and the pentahydrate, in both of which water-molecules intervene between the copper atoms, keeping them apart and thus preventing the mutual action above referred to. In other words, the paramagnetic susceptibility of the copper atom is less in the anhydride than in the monohydrate or in the pentahydrate.

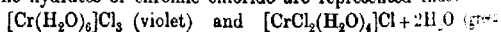
This theory receives support from the fact that similar hypotheses have served to explain two observations recently made in the cryogenic laboratory at Leiden. Perrier and Onnes (*Compt. rend.*, 1914, 158, 941) studied mixtures of liquid oxygen and liquid nitrogen, and found that the coefficient of magnetic susceptibility of liquid oxygen increases as the concentration diminishes. Again Onnes and Oosterhuis (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch., Amsterdam*, 1913, 15, 969) in studying paramagnetism at low temperatures found for hydrates of salts and anhydrous salts, in the case of ferrous sulphate and manganese sulphate, that whilst the hydrates obeyed Curie's law, $\chi T = \text{constant}$, down to the temperature of liquid nitrogen, the anhydrous salt followed the law, $\chi/T = \text{constant}$, where χ = specific susceptibility, T = absolute temperature, and Δ = a constant. Thus, at any given temperature within a certain range the paramagnetism is increased by the addition of water with the salt.

Mlle. Feytis (*Compt. rend.*, 1911, 153, 668) about the same time as we made our observations obtained similar results for copper sulphate (see experimental part).

Mlle. Feytis (*loc. cit.* and *Compt. rend.*, 1913, 156, 880) for the salts $\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{NH}_4\text{Cl} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{CuCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{KCl} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and $\text{NiSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ departure from additivity in the same sense as copper sulphate. On the other hand, she observed that additivity held for the salts $\text{CoSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{Cr}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 16\frac{1}{2}\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and



but not for $\text{CrCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, for which the departure was in a direction opposite to that for copper sulphate. This last case may be brought into line with our hypothesis by supposing that in anhydrous chromic chloride the chlorine atoms are arranged symmetrically round the chromium atom, chlorine atoms keeping apart the chromium atoms of different salt molecules, and thus enhancing paramagnetism. When water unites with the anhydrous salt we suppose that there is no longer the symmetry referred to, so that chromium atoms can come nearer one another than before and thus the atomic paramagnetism of the chromium is diminished. The hydrates of chromic chloride are represented thus:



The difference between these is not shown in magnetic measurements.

We have observed departure from additivity in the hydrates of paramagnetic salts also, and from our own results and those of others have been led to the general rule, that when there is departure from additivity a paramagnetic anhydride has its paramagnetism enhanced and a diamagnetic anhydride has its diamagnetism diminished by the union with water, on the assumption that the susceptibility of the water is not affected appreciably by the union. In a paramagnetic substance the always present diamagnetism is masked by the larger paramagnetism. According to our general rule the diamagnetism in a paramagnetic substance might be diminished by union with water (when there is departure from additivity), and thus the apparent paramagnetism would be enhanced. We believe, however, that the departure from additivity in paramagnetic salts can be only partly explained by this cause, and that the hypothesis suggested under copper sulphate, or a pentahydrate, is still required.

For copper sulphate pentahydrate the theory might be brought forward that the water of crystallisation is made up of two dihydrol molecules and one monohydrol molecule, or one trihydrol molecule and two monohydrol molecules, or one trihydrol molecule and one dihydrol molecule, or one dihydrol molecule and three monohydrol molecules, or five monohydrol molecules. The first of these five possibilities is best suited for explaining how one water-molecule differs from the other four. We think, however, that this would account for only a very small magnetic difference, judging from the results of Piccard (*Compt. rend.*, 1912, **155**, 1497), who studied the susceptibility of water at various temperatures from 0° to 100°. The susceptibility of water is only 0.75 per cent. greater at 100° than at 0°; also the decrease on solidification is 2.4 per cent., so that variations in the proportions of trihydrol, dihydrol, and monohydrol has very little effect on the susceptibility.

Similarly the results of Piccard do not encourage us to suppose that departure from additivity in a hydrate is due to any appreciable extent to any change in the magnetic susceptibility of the water, that is, to change caused by the union with the anhydride.

The water which is present in a paramagnetic metallic hydroxide is usually regarded as a clear case of water of constitution, and when water unites with the oxide to form the hydroxide there is not a considerable enhancing of the paramagnetic susceptibility of the oxide molecule. Thus, there are hydrates and hydroxides in which the magnetic rôle of water is identical, and it becomes an interesting question whether we can extend the hypothesis we have for hydrates to the case of metallic hydroxides.

With regard to the organic acids (see tables III and IV) the relationship between constitutional and magnetic similarities and

differences is interesting. In every case except the two acids we show decided departure from additivity (succinic and camphoric acids), the anhydride is obtained from the interaction of two carboxyl groups which are either near one another in the same molecule or are in different molecules, so that interaction can take place without any great change in the configuration of the atoms and their electrons. On the other hand, with succinic acid there is a marked change in the relative position of the atoms when the two carboxyl groups at the ends of the open chain interact to form a cyclic compound, and similarly with camphoric acid when two carboxyl groups attached to two non-adjacent carbon atoms of a camphoceanic ring interact to give the anhydride.

In comparing our results with Pascal's it should be noted that we use for the molecular susceptibility of water the experimental value -12.96×10^{-6} , whilst the sum of Pascal's atomic values is -10.46×10^{-6} . In calculating the molecular susceptibility of an organic compound, however, Pascal introduces corrections for substitution, so that the two methods are not necessarily in accord. At any rate, our experimental figures and Pascal's calculations agree for fumaric acid and maleic acid and benzene; also, according to our method, additivity holds for these three substances.

EXPERIMENTAL.

The recent concordant results of de Haas and Draper (1912), of Weiss and Piccard (1913), and of Sève (1912) yield for the specific susceptibility of water reduced to a vacuum the value -0.72×10^{-6} , which we use here in preference to the value -0.75×10^{-6} formerly used by Pascal, and the still older value of Curie, namely, -0.79×10^{-6} .

All our results were obtained with a Curie-Chéneveau magnetic balance except number 8 of table III, for which a Pascal balance was used. The permanent magnet of the Curie-Chéneveau balance had an average field of 232 gauss per sq. cm. over an area of 5.6 sq. cm. round and at right angles to the axis. Platinum torsion wires were used about 33 cm. long and of diameter 0.1 mm., or 0.07 mm., according to the requirements; the scale was placed at a distance of more than 2 metres from the mirror. The greatest precision was obtained with a pure liquid, for example, with benzene, as shown in table III. All the results in table III were in the form of powder, and the precision was usually not so great as with benzene. In some cases we improved the precision by heating the anhydride both before and after filling the tube, or by leaving the filled tube in a vacuum desiccator some time before the determination. With a glass tube the heat might cause volume changes resulting in error, and it occurred

try a quartz tube.* We found, however, that little, if any, was gained by its use, as the susceptibility of the quartz was not greater than that of the glass we used, so that a degree of uncertainty was introduced which perhaps more than balanced the advantage obtained from the constancy of volume of the quartz. In the case of the substances in table IV we sometimes found that purification improved the precision, even when the method of purification produced no change in the melting point.

Result number 8 in table III was obtained with a Pascal balance, the field of the electromagnet having an average of about 9000 gauss per sq. cm. over an area of 2.21 sq. cm. at right angles to the round the axis.

The determinations were carried out at 15°.

In the following numerical results we have given as many digits as we obtained in our calculation. The precision of the estimation indicates how many digits should be retained in each case.

Magnetic Susceptibility of Aqueous Solutions of Potassium Ferricyanide.

TABLE I.

Order of measurement.	Number of measurements.	x .	y .	y_1 .	d_1 .	y_2 .	d_2 .
A	3	29.13	+1.394	+1.362	+0.032	+1.354	+0.040
B	2	26.22	+1.188	+1.155	+0.033	+1.148	+0.040
	3	23.53	+0.993	+0.962	+0.031	+0.956	+0.037
C	2	20.35	+0.731	+0.735	-0.004	+0.731	+0.000
	2	17.32	+0.513	+0.518	-0.005	+0.515	+0.002
	2	15.55	+0.391	+0.392	-0.001	+0.390	+0.001
	3	12.37	+0.162	+0.164	-0.002	+0.163	+0.001
	1	11.08	+0.0675	+0.0722	-0.0047	+0.0718	+0.0043
	2	8.27	-0.123	-0.129	+0.006	-0.128	+0.005
	1	7.416	-0.178	-0.189	+0.011	-0.188	+0.010
	4	0.005	-0.286	-0.291	+0.005	-0.289	+0.003
	4	4.594	-0.383	-0.392	+0.009	-0.390	+0.007
	6	2.976	-0.506	-0.507	+0.001	-0.504	+0.002

In table I, x denotes the weight of potassium ferricyanide in grams of aqueous solution, $y \times 10^{-6}$ denotes the susceptibility calculated by experiment for a solution of percentage x . y_1 is the

value of y as obtained from $\frac{x}{10.07} - 0.72 = 1$. d_1 denotes the distance

the direction of y that the experimental point is above or below a straight line; + means above, - means below. Under y_2 and

are given corresponding values obtained from $\frac{x}{10.07} - 0.716 = 1$.

Fitting the three solutions A, B, and C, we note that the first straight line fits the experimental points very closely, and that the second line fits still closer, but does not pass through the water-soluble. However, taking into account the degree of uncertainty of

the measurements and seeing how near the lines lie to the straight line, we need not push the refinement of the calculation so far, and may be content with the first and simpler equation.

Of the solutions, *A* was the most concentrated we could conveniently use, and its composition was found by chemical analysis. By adding a weighed amount of *A* to a weighed amount of water, *B* and *C* were obtained. *S* was prepared by adding a weighed amount of water to a weighed amount of pure potassium cyanide. A stock of *S* was prepared, from which, by the weighing method, the series of solutions 1 9 were obtained. Any error in the determination of the composition of *A* will affect the *B* and *C*, and any error in the preparation of *S* will affect the 1 to 9. The two sets are, of course, independent of one another. This explains why the three points obtained with *A*, *B* and *C* deviate further from the straight line than any of the points of the set *S*, 1, 9. It is probable that the analysis by chemical means is not so accurate as the preparation of *S* by the weighing method.

The degree of the uncertainty of the magnetic measurements of the solutions will be seen from solution 9, for which the average deviation from the mean was 0.0038 or 0.76 per cent.

TABLE II.

Substance.	Specific susceptibility $\times 10^6$.		Average deviation from mean.		Molecular susceptibility $\times 10^6$.	Molecular susceptibility $\times 10^6$.
	Mlle. Feytaud's values.	Our values.	Absolute.	Per cent.		
CuSO_4	8.6	8.39	0.02	0.2	1339	1339
$\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	8.6	8.32	0.04	0.5	1479	1479
$\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$	5.9	5.81	0.03	0.5	1150	1150
Molecular susceptibility of $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$					1479	1479
Correction for water					13	13
Susceptibility of the molecule CuSO_4 in $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$					1492	1492
Molecular susceptibility of anhydrous CuSO_4					1339	1339
Difference					153	153

Thus, the union with one molecule of water has increased the paramagnetic susceptibility of the anhydrous copper sulphate molecule by $+153 \times 10^{-6}$ or by about 11.5 per cent. Further addition of water molecules to form the higher hydrate has no noticeable influence on the susceptibility.

Otherwise:

Substance.	Molecular susceptibility $\times 10^6$.		Deviation from additivity.	
	Experimental.	Calculated.	Absolute.	Per cent.
$\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$...	1479	+1326 (from CuSO_4 and H_2O)	153	10.3
$\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$...	1450	+1427 (from $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and H_2O)	23	1.6

Copper Nitroprusside.

Specific susceptibility $\times 10^6$	Average deviation from mean		Number of measurements	Molecular susceptibility $\times 10^6$	Deviation from additivity per cent.
	Absolute	Per cent.			
$\text{K}_2\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	+4.54	0.05	1.0	5	+1432
$\text{K}_2\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$	+5.73	0.03	0.5	5	+1593
					—

As would indicate that the deviation is opposite in direction to that for copper sulphate. However, any slight decomposition in preparation would make the anhydride too highly paramagnetic. A general study of nitroprussides, on which we are at present engaged, may throw more light on this question.

Some Diamagnetic Salts.

Potassium ferrocyanide:

Molecular susceptibility of $\text{K}_4\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O} = -172.0 \times 10^{-6}$
 Correction for $3\text{H}_2\text{O} = -38.9$
 Susceptibility of the molecule $\text{K}_4\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$ in $\text{K}_4\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O} = -133.1$
 Molecular susceptibility of anhydrous $\text{K}_4\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6 = -145.1$
 Difference = 12.

By union with water the diamagnetism of the molecule $\text{K}_4\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$ is diminished by about 9 per cent.

The following figures were calculated from the results of St. Lawrence. Less per cent. means the percentage by which the diamagnetic susceptibility of the anhydrous salt molecule is reduced by union with water to form the given hydrate.

Salt	$\text{MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$\text{BaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
per cent.	over 100	over 100	25
Salt	$\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$\text{Li}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$
per cent.	over 100	24	over 100

As would imply that in these salts we have paramagnetism masked by the diamagnetism of the water.

TABLE III.

Organic Acids.

Substance.	Specific susceptibility $\times 10^6$	Average deviation from mean		Number of measurements.
		Absolute.	Per cent.	
1. Benzene]	-0.7086	0.0049	0.7	5
2. Benzoic acid ...	-0.5560	0.0123	2.2	6
3. Benzoic anhydride ...	-0.5522	0.0060	1.1	6
4. Phthalic acid ...	-0.4878	0.0054	1.1	7
5. Phthalic anhydride ...	-0.4460	0.0048	1.1	6
6. Maleic acid	-0.4269	0.0182	4.0	8
7. Fumaric acid ...	-0.4158	0.0043	1.0	4
8. Fumaric acid ...	-0.4269	0.0095	2.2	5
9. Maleic anhydride ...	-0.3654	0.0056	1.5	6

TABLE III. (*continued*).

Reference number.	Substance.	Specific susceptibility $\times 10^6$.	Average deviation from mean.		Sum of deviations
			Absolute.	Per cent.	
10.	Succinic acid ...	0.4615	0.0015	0.3	1
11.	Succinic anhydride ...	0.4753	0.0111	2.3	1
12.	Camphoric acid	0.7461	0.0054	0.8	1
13.	Camphoric anhydride ...	0.6204	0.0172	2.7	1

TABLE IV.

Reference number.	Substance.	Molecular susceptibility $\times 10^6$.		Deviation from additivity, Per cent.	Sum of deviations
		Experimental.	For additivity.		
2.	Benzoic acid...	67.78	68.85	1.5	1.5
3.	Benzoic anhydride ...	62.37 $\times 2$	—	—	—
4.	Phthalic acid...	81.36	78.97	2.5	2.5
5.	Phthalic anhydride ...	66.01	—	—	—
6.	Maleic acid ...	49.52	48.77	1.5	1.5
7.	Fumaric acid...	48.23	48.77	1.0	1.0
8.	Fumaric acid ..	49.52	48.77	1.5	0.5
9.	Maleic anhydride ...	35.81	—	—	—
10.	Succinic acid...	54.45	60.40	9.9	9.9
11.	Succinic anhydride ...	47.53	—	—	—
12.	Camphoric acid	149.3	125.3	19.0	19.0
13.	Camphoric anhydride ...	112.3	—	—	—

	Molecular susceptibility $\times 10^6$.	Pascal gives	
		—55.1 (Expt.)	—56.0
Benzene.....	—55.27		
Phthalic acid	—81.36		
Mean	—68.31		
Benzoic acid	—67.78		

Thus when the molecular susceptibility of benzoic acid is calculated from benzene and phthalic acid on the basis of additivity then the experimental result differs from this calculated value less than 1 per cent.

Under the heading "Pascal" we give the molecular susceptibilities as calculated from Pascal's atomic values and his correction for constitution.

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Organic Chemistry.

Isoprene from Commercial Turpentine. CHAS. H. HERTY and P. GRAHAM (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 803—804).—Ordinary oil turpentine yielded 5.5% of isoprene when submitted to distillation in the "isoprene lamp" apparatus described by Harries and Gottlob (1911, i, 798); the fraction of oil of turpentine, b. p. 155—156°, yielded 80% of isoprene, and the fraction b. p. 163—173°, 0.5%. No isoprene was obtained from the fraction b. p. above 173°. It is evident that the isoprene is derived from the pinene present. Oil of *Pinus pealensis* yielded 12% of isoprene; pine oil, 4%; and refined spruce pine turpentine, none.

W. P. S.

Ethyl Ester of Linolic Acid Tetrabromide as a Product in the Analysis of Cotton-seed Oil. LEROY S. PALMER and PHILIP WRIGHT (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 822—823).—During an investigation regarding the composition of cotton-seed oil, in which the unsaturated fatty acids were isolated by making use of their solubility in ether, the authors obtained a crystalline compound, in place of the acid tetrabromide, when an attempt was made to form the latter substance. The crystals had m. p. 58—58.5°, and consisted of ethyl linolate tetrabromide. The cause of the formation of this ethyl ester has been definitely ascertained, but it appears to take place during the use of lead soaps as in contact with ether.

W. P. S.

Humic Acid. SVEN ODÉN (*Arkiv. Kem. Min. Geol.*, 1914, 5, 15; Compare A., 1912, i, 336; this vol., i, 500).—When suspensions of *Sphagnum* peat and leaf humus are treated with ammonia, adsorption of ammonia takes place, and, coincidentally, salts are adsorbed in considerable amounts from the peat and humus, whilst the humus itself gives only a relatively insignificant amount of salt. These results are opposed to the view of Baumann and Gully, who consider that the adsorption of bases by peat is mainly due to the presence of *Sphagnum* cells. The effect on conductivity of the action of salts exceeds that of adsorption even in concentrations of 0.01. Humates are extracted by ammonia in concentrations as low as 0.005, so that the suggestion that humates are decomposition products of the action of ammonia on humus is improbable.

In reference to the criticisms of Ehrenberg and Bahr (this vol., i, 100), it is pointed out that filtration through collodion can only be employed when not less than 10% collodion is employed. It is also noted that as Ehrenberg and Bahr omitted to extract humic acid with alcohol, it may have contained a considerable amount of hymatomelanic acid which might account for the different results obtained for the mol. weight.

N. H. J. M.

Isolation of Crystalline *dl*-Glyceraldehyde from a Syrup Produced by the Oxidation of Glycerol. EDGAR J. WITZEMANN (*Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2223—2234).—The syrupy product

L. CVII. i.

obtained by the oxidation of glycerol with hydrogen peroxide in the presence of ferrous sulphate (Fenton and Jackson, T., 1899). It contains *dl*-glyceraldehyde. This was established by converting the aldehyde into the diethylacetal and recovering pure *dl*-glyceraldehyde from the latter by hydrolysis with 0.1*N*-sulphuric acid. E

Crystallised *l*-Mannose. W. ALBERDA VAN EKENSTEIN and BLANKEMA (*Chem. Weekblad*, 1914, 11, 902).—A yield of 12% *l*-mannose can be obtained by hydrolysis of the cyanohydrin of *l*-arabinose, isolation of mannonolactone from the mixture of lactic acid and *l*-gluconic acid, and reduction with sodium amalgam. To crystallise the sugar, it is converted into the phenylhydrazide, then regenerated by the action of benzaldehyde. After several days the resulting syrup crystallises, and on recrystallisation from alcohol gives colourless crystals, m. p. 132°. It exhibits mutarotation, the rotation being $[\alpha]_D +14^\circ$, and the final rotation $[\alpha]_D -14^\circ$, in complete agreement with the corresponding constants for *d*-mannose. E

A J J

Preparation of Raffinose. C. S. HUDSON and T. S. HUNTER (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2110–2114).—During a study of the hydrolysis of raffinose by enzymes, a large quantity of the sugar was required. A method for its preparation was therefore devised which is superior to any of those hitherto recorded.

Cotton-seed meal is extracted with water, the aqueous extract is treated with basic lead acetate and filtered, and the filtrate treated with hydrogen sulphide to remove excess of lead, and again filtered. A little sodium hyposulphite is added to prevent development of lead sulphide, and the solution is boiled under reduced pressure until it becomes a syrup containing about 25% of water. Barium hydroxide is added, and the barium raffinosate is powdered and washed with methanol. The barium compound is suspended in water and carefully decanted, and with 50% phosphoric acid, so that the solution is exactly neutral at the end of this process. After filtration, a little sulphuric acid is added to remove the last traces of barium, and the solution is again filtered, treated for a few minutes with eponite (a form of vegetable charcoal), filtered, and concentrated in a vacuum to a syrup containing 70% of water. A small quantity of alcohol containing 0.3% of water is added, and the mixture is seeded with crystals of raffinose and left at 0° to crystallise. The crystalline mass is treated with 75% alcohol, filtered, and washed with alcohol of the same strength until the washings are colourless. A yield of 4–5% of raffinose from the weight of cotton-seed meal employed may thus be obtained. Colourless raffinose crystals. The product may be further purified by recrystallisation. E

The Solubility of Nitrocellulose in Mixtures of Ether and Alcohol. A. MATTEOSCHAT (*Chem. Zentr.*, 1914, i, 2095; from *Gas. Schiess-Sprengstoffwesen*, 1914, 9, 105–106).—The author measured the solubility of a sample of gun-cotton in mixtures of ether and dry or dilute alcohol. Absolute alcohol and ether are

proportion 1:1 make a useful mixture, but with the common diluted alcohol the proportion should be, ether to alcohol as 2:1 or 3:1.

J. C. W.

The Plurality of Amyloses. CH. TANRET (*Compt. rend.*, 1914, 59, 530-533).—The author has determined the absolute and relative percentages of amyloses dissolved by water at different temperatures in different kinds of starch. For the starches used, water, at the same temperature, dissolves very different amounts of amylose. The results are a further proof of the plurality of amyloses as suggested by Beaudou and Roux.

W. G.

Metallic Compounds of Glycine. A. BERNARDI (*Gazzetta*, 1914, ii, 257-260).—The author has investigated the compound prepared by Dessaigne (*Annalen*, 1852, 82, 365), examined later by Kiesel (A., 1899, ii, 485), and known as mercury glycine, $\text{H}_2\text{N}\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot(\text{CO}_2)_2\text{Hg}$. It is found that the action of alkali on this compound results in no precipitation of mercuric oxide, but in the formation of the compound $\text{CH}_2\langle\text{NH}\rangle\text{CO}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{Hg}$. It is suggested that the latter compound be termed mercuriglycine, and that the former be named mercury aminoacetate.

Mercury aminoacetate, $(\text{NH}_2\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{CO}_2)_2\text{Hg}$, forms tufts of white crystals, m. p. 110-111°. Mercuriglycine, $\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2\text{NHg}$, obtained by the use of the calculated proportion of calcium hydroxide solution on mercury aminoacetate, has m. p. 155° (decomp.), and when treated with sodium thiosulphate liberates sodium hydroxide quantitatively according to the equation:

$$\text{H}_2\text{N}\cdot\text{Hg} + \text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{CO}_2\text{H}\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{NH}_2 + \text{HgS}_2\text{O}_3 + 2\text{NaOH}.$$

Mercuric sulphate, mercury aminoacetate forms the double salt, $\text{H}_2\text{N}\cdot\text{CH}_2\cdot\text{NH}_2\cdot\text{HgSO}_4\cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, decomp. 102°.

Glycine, $\text{CH}_2\langle\text{NH}\rangle\text{CO}_2\text{O}\cdot\text{Ca}$, was also prepared.

T. H. P.

Three Isomeric Ethyl-sec.-butylhydroxylamines. LAUDERMAN JONES and LEONORA NEUFFER (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2202-2208).—Jones (A., 1907, i, 897) has described two isomeric hydroxylamines, namely, β -methyl- α -ethyl- and α -methyl- β -ethylhydroxylamine. In the present paper, an account is given of α -ethyl- α -butyl- and β -ethyl- α -sec.-butylhydroxylamines which are isomeric with β -ethyl- β -sec.-butylhydroxylamine (Bewad, A., 1900, i, 630; Dean and Goulding, T., 1901, 79, 641).

α -Ethylhydroxyurethane (carbethoxyhydroxamic) ethyl ether (Jones, 1898, i, 174) is treated with sec.-butyl iodide and sodium ethoxide, converted into carbethoxy- α -ethyl- β -sec.-butylhydroxylamine (hydroxybutylurethane ethyl ether), $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\cdot\text{N}(\text{OEt})\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$, b. p. 105-106°/4 mm. On hydrolysing this compound with potassium hydroxide, yields α -ethyl- β -sec.-butylhydroxylamine, $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{OEt}$, b. p. 61-69°; its hydrochloride has m. p. 94°; the platinichloride was prepared and analysed.

by the action of sec.-butyl iodide on hydroxyurethane in presence of

potassium hydroxide, *carbethoxy- α -sec.-butylhydroxylamine hydrochloride* (*hydroxyurethane sec.-butyl ether*), $\text{CO}_2\text{Et}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{O}\cdot\text{C}_4\text{H}_9$, b. p. 116–117 mm., is produced, and this, on being treated with ethyl iodide, is converted into *carbethoxy- β -ethyl- α -sec.-butylhydroxylamine* (*hydroxyurethane sec.-butyl ether*), $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\cdot\text{O}\cdot\text{NEt}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$, b. p. 86.5–87°/30 mm. The latter compound, on hydrolysis, forms *β -ethyl- α -sec.-butylhydroxylamine*, $\text{NHEt}\cdot\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9$, b. p. 53.5–54°; its *hydrochloride* is deliquescent; the *platinichloride* forms deep yellow crystals.

When *carbethoxy- α -sec.-butylhydroxylamine* is heated with potassium hydroxide, it is converted into *α -sec.-butylhydroxylamine*, $\text{NH}_2\cdot\text{C}_4\text{H}_9$, b. p. 85.5°; its *hydrochloride* has m. p. 54.7–55°, and the *platinichloride* forms deep yellow crystals.

The carbethoxyhydroxylamines described in this paper are liquids with a characteristic odour; they do not reduce ammoniacal silver nitrate or Fehling's solution. *α -sec.-Butylhydroxylamine* and the ethyl-*sec.-butylhydroxylamines* have a characteristic ammoniacal odour; they reduce ammoniacal silver nitrate in the cold and Fehling's solution when heated.

Some New Hydroxyurethanes and Chromoisomeric Salts of Their Acyl Derivatives. LAUDER WILLIAM JONES, RALPH OESPER (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2208–2212). Experiments described in this paper were undertaken with a view to the preparation of mixed oximinocarbonic esters, $\text{OR}\cdot\text{C}(\text{N})\text{NOH}$. Several new carbalkyloxyhydroxamic acids (hydroxyurethanes) have been obtained and their benzoyl esters studied. The silver salts of some of these benzoyl esters were obtained in two isomeric modifications, white and yellow, which are mutually transformable. Methyl, ethyl, and isopropyl compounds yield only yellow salts; *isobutyl*, *isocamyl*, and *benzyl* compounds furnish both modifications. When treated with alkyl haloids, these silver salts yield derivatives in which the alkyl groups are attached to nitrogen instead of oxygen, and for this reason the desired acyl derivatives of oximinocarbonic esters could not be obtained.

Carbomethoxyhydroxamic acid, $\text{OH}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Me}$, was obtained as a thick, yellow oil by the interaction of methyl chloroformate, hydrazine hydrochloride, and potassium carbonate. The *benzoyl ester*, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Me}$, m. p. 82°, forms white needles; its *silver salt*, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NAg}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Me}$, has m. p. 149–150°.

When the silver salt of the benzoyl ester of carbethoxyhydroxamic acid (Jones, A., 1898, i, 174) is heated, it becomes white at 150–160° then darkens rapidly, and melts at 174° (decomp.). The action of ethyl iodide and *isocamyl iodide* on this salt has already been described (this vol., i, 505). By the action of benzoyl chloride on the silver salt of carbethoxyhydroxamic acid or by the action of ethyl chloroformate on the silver salt of dibenzhydroxamic acid, the *dibenzyl derivative of carbethoxyhydroxamic acid* (A., 1898, i, 174) is produced.

Carbopropoxyhydroxamic acid, $\text{OH}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Pr}$, was obtained as a thick, colourless oil. The *benzoyl ester* yields a *silver salt*, b.

145°, forming yellow needles which do not become white when heated. By the action of benzoyl chloride on this silver salt, the benzoyl derivative, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NBz}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Pr}$, m. p. 78—89°, is produced, which crystallises in cubes. When the silver salt is treated with ethyl iodide, the *N*-ethyl derivative, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NEt}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{Pr}$, is obtained as a pale yellow oil, and is hydrolysed by hydrochloric acid with formation of ethylhydroxylamine hydrochloride.

tert-butylhydroxamic acid, $\text{OH}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{C}_4\text{H}_9$, is a colourless oil. The benzoyl ester, m. p. 43—44°, yields a yellow silver salt which, when heated at 80—83°, is converted into a white modification, and m. p. 158°. The *N*-ethyl derivative, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NEt}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{C}_4\text{H}_9$, is a pale yellow oil.

tert-amylhydroxamic acid, $\text{OH}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{C}_5\text{H}_{11}$, is a viscid, pale yellow oil. The benzoyl ester, a colourless oil, furnishes a yellow silver salt which becomes white at about 75° and melts at 141—142°. When the salt is treated with benzoyl chloride, the dibenzoyl derivative, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NBz}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{C}_5\text{H}_{11}$, m. p. 69—70°, is produced. The *N*-ethyl derivative, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NEt}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{C}_5\text{H}_{11}$, is a pale yellow oil which yields ethylhydroxylamine on hydrolysis.

tert-decentylhydroxamic acid, $\text{OH}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{CH}_3\text{Ph}$, has m. p. 65°. The benzoyl ester, m. p. 109—110°, yields a silver salt, m. p. 150—151°, which exists in yellow and white modifications. The *N*-ethyl derivative, $\text{OBz}\cdot\text{NEt}\cdot\text{CO}_2\cdot\text{CH}_3\text{Ph}$, is a pale yellow oil.

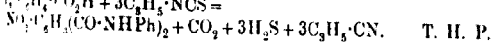
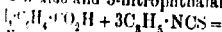
E. G.

Syntheses in the Fluorene and Bisdiphenylene-ethylene series. GONZALO GALLAS (*Anal. Fis. Quim.*, 1914, 12, 112—131).—7-Dinitrofluorenone condenses with 2:7-dinitrofluorene at 160° in presence of zinc chloride to form 2:7:2':7'-tetranitrobisdiphenylene-ethylene, which on reduction by means of tin and hydrochloric acid yields the corresponding tetra-amino-compound, colourless, silky crystals, m. p. 250° (decomp.). The acid solution develops a blue reaction with oxidising agents.

G. D. L.

Action of Allylthiocarbimide on Various Amino organic compounds. G. Rossi (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 44, ii, 264—268).—In the use of a solvent, the interaction of *o*-toluidine and allylthiocarbimide at the boiling point of the latter yields, not *s*-*o*-tolylallylthioamide, but *s*-di-*o*-tolylthiocarbimide and allylamine.

Reaction of allylthiocarbimide on *o*-aminobenzoic acid is of a more violent character and yields allyl cyanide, hydrogen sulphide, acetic oxide and 3-nitrophthalanilide:



T. H. P.

Benzoylations in Ether Solution. WILLIAM M. DEHN and ALICE BALL (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2091—2101).—In an earlier paper (Dehn, A., 1912, i, 833) an account was given of the action of benzoyl chloride on various bases in solution in dry ether. Similar experiments have now been carried out with benzoyl chloride and it has been found that, as with acetyl chloride, a mixture of the hydrolysed and acyl chloride additive compound of the base is pre-

precipitated. In some cases, these precipitates are contaminated with the original bases or with their benzoyl derivatives. All the benzoyl chloride additive compounds are dissociated by water and many of them are unstable towards heat. The additive compounds of the primary and secondary bases can generally be prepared by adding hydrogen chloride in ether or toluene solution to solutions of the benzoyl derivatives; the hydrochlorides of benzanilide, *o*-tolylbenzamide, and α -naphthylbenzamide, however, could not be obtained in this way.

*iso*Butylamine yields a mixture of its hydrochloride with that of *isobutylbenzamide*. The precipitate obtained with *isoamylamine* has m. p. 201° and consists of *isoamylbenzamide hydrochloride*. *Amylbenzamide* is an oil, b. p. $310-315^{\circ}$. Aniline gives a precipitate containing benzanilide and benzanilide hydrochloride. *p*-Toluidine yields *p*-tolylbenzamide and *p*-tolylbenzamide hydrochloride, while *o*-toluidine and *m*-toluidine and α -naphthylamine afford mixtures of the hydrochloride of the base, the benzamide, and the additive compound. Phenylhydrazine gives a precipitate consisting of phenylhydrazine hydrochloride, and benzoylphenylhydrazine and its hydrochloride. Carbamide furnishes the additive compound, $\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2 \cdot \text{BzAm}$, m. p. 209° (decomp.).

Diethylamine and methylaniline yield precipitates containing diethylbenzamide hydrochloride and phenylmethylaniline hydrochloride respectively. Piperidine furnishes benzoylpiperidine hydrochloride, which forms white, hygroscopic needles. Benzylethylenediamine gives benzylethylbenzamide hydrochloride; benzylethylbenzamide has m. p. $218^{\circ}/29$ mm.

Additive compounds were also obtained with triethylamine, *isoamylamine*, dimethylaniline, diethylaniline, antipyrine, quinine pyridine, and α -picoline.

Copper Lakes of Eosin. HARVEY NICHOLAS GILBERT (*J. Amer. Chem.*, 1914, 18, 566-618).—An investigation has been made of the eosin copper lake with the object of ascertaining whether the solution is a definite compound or merely an adsorption complex consisting of copper hydroxide with the eosin adsorbed in approximately equal amount. It is shown that copper hydroxide, when treated with solutions of eosin in varying quantities, exhibits the typical adsorption curve, and there is no indication of a chemical compound. The amount of eosin taken up is about one-tenth of the amount required to form copper eosinate. Similar adsorption curves were obtained when magnesium oxide was shaken up with various eosin solutions. The composition of the copper lake produced by the interaction of copper sulphate and sodium eosinate was studied and was found that the precipitate contained an excess of copper in all cases where an excess of copper salt was employed. It was not possible to synthesise lakes from copper hydroxide and eosin which behaved like the original lake. These lakes could be brought to colloidal solution, and all behaved similarly, although the ratio of copper to eosin varied from two molecules of copper to one of eosin to one molecule of copper to two of eosin. The amorphous lake has the

transformed into crystalline copper eosinate. The properties of the lake differed entirely from those of the crystalline substance. The decomposition of the lake in aqueous suspension by means of ether showed that the eosin was set free from the lake by the greater attraction of the copper hydroxide for the anions of certain salts. These anions are adsorbed by the copper hydroxide setting free the adsorbed eosin. The order of the decomposition, due to these adsorbed anions, is the same as is found for other cases of adsorption: $\text{I}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{NO}_3^-$. The decomposition of the lake by aqueous alcohol and aqueous acetone is similar to that of ether and may be explained in the same way as due to the preferential adsorption of anions. The results obtained indicate that the lake, produced by the action of an aqueous solution of sodium eosinate on a solution of copper sulphate, does not consist of copper eosinate, although the copper and eosin are present in equivalent quantities. The lake consists of copper hydroxide, which by the method of formation contains an equivalent amount of adsorbed eosin. A colorimetric method for the estimation of eosin is given, which consists in preparing a solution of cobalt nitrate of exactly the same tint as a solution of eosin containing 0.00125 gram per litre. Such a cobalt solution contains 17.84 grams of the nitrate per litre. The method of estimation consists in diluting the given lake solution until it has exactly the same tint as the cobalt standard.

J. F. S.

p-Aminobenzaldehyde and Aniline. G. Rossi (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 4, ii, 261-263).—The interaction of *p*-aminobenzaldehyde and aniline yields *p*-aminobenzylideneaniline, which crystallises in microscopic, canary-yellow needles, and forms a picrate, brick-red needles exploding violently at 150°, and, when treated with ethyl ester, *p*-ethyl aminobenzylideneaniline, $\text{NHPh} \cdot \text{C}_6\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{CH}=\text{NPh}$, red needles, decomp. 150°.

T. H. P.

Oxidation of the Nopinene of Spanish Oil of Turpentine. ROSIO MADINAVEITIA (*Anal. Fis. Quim.*, 1914, 12, 259-264).—The oil on oxidation with potassium permanganate in alkaline solution yields nopinic acid in conformity with the observations of Bayer and of March (A., 1907, i, 936), and in opposition to the statements of Romero and Fernández (this vol., ii, 78).

G. D. L.

Volatile Oil of *Calycanthus floridus*. EMERSON R. MILLER, W. TAYLOR, and M. H. ESKEW (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 21-2187).—The material used for this investigation consisted of the bark of *Calycanthus floridus*, collected after the leaves had fallen. They were cut off just above the ground, freed from any remaining bark, allowed to dry in the air, and submitted to distillation with steam. Three samples of oil were obtained at different times in yields of 2, 0.25%, and 0.39%; the small, young plants gave the best yield. The samples were pale yellow, soluble in all proportions in 90% alcohol, and furnished the following constants: D_{20}^{25} 0.9209, 0.9161, 0.9136; n_D^{25} (in a 100 mm. tube), +2.85°, +2.84°, +6.6°; n_D^{20} 1.4675, 1.4713, 1.4753; saponification number, 12.5, 14.40, 16.6; saponification

number after acetylation, 75.1, —, 65.7. Calculating the alcohols and esters as borneol and bornyl acetate, the oils contained 4.7% 5.04% and 5.81% of bornyl acetate, and samples (1) and (3) contained 18.44% and 14.46% of borneol respectively. Samples (1) and (3) contained 35–36% and 69–71% of cineole. Besides borneol, bornyl acetate and cineole, the oil contained *d*- and *l*- α -pinene, salicylic acid, and other esters other than bornyl acetate, and probably linalool and terpinenes.

Oils of the Coniferae. II. The Leaf and the Twig, and the Oils of White Fir. A. W. SCHORGER (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 809–810. Compare this vol., i, 1134).—The leaves and twigs of white fir, *Abies concolor*, yield from 0.029 to 0.272% of oil having D^{20}_D 0.8720–0.8777, n^{20}_D 1.4786–1.4796, α^{20}_D –20.11° to –27.34°, acid number, 1.01–1.81; ester number, 12.52–27.34. The bark yields 0.095% of oil having D^{20}_D 0.8702–0.8767, n^{20}_D 1.4780–1.4792, α^{20}_D –20.15° to –20.95°; acid number, 0.87–1.22; ester number, 6.43–6.88. The composition of the oils was found to be as follows:

	Leaf and twig oil.	Bark
Furfuraldehyde	trace	trace
<i>l</i> - α -Pinene	12	9
<i>l</i> -Camphene	8	—
<i>l</i> - β -Pinene	42	—
<i>l</i> -Phellandrene	15	Dipentene 12
Ester, as bornyl acetate	6.5	2.1
Free borneol	9.5	1.5
"Green oil"	3	—
Loss	4	—

Oil of Black Sage. CHARLES E. BURKE and CHARLES C. SCHORGER (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 804–806).—Black sage (*Salvia Stachyoides*) from Southern California yielded 0.8% of oil having D^{20}_D 0.8979, $[\alpha]$ 24.4°, n^{20}_D 1.4729; acid number, 2.2; ester number, 1.2. The oil had the following composition: pinene, 6.0%; cineole, 5.0% dipentene, terpinene, etc., 25.0%; thujone, 8.0%; camphor, 15.0% resinous substance, 5.0%.

Essential Oil of Argentine Mint (*Bystropogon Molle* Kt). ADOLFO DÖRRING (*Bol. Acad. Nac. Ciencias Cordoba*, 1913, 1, 379–391).—The essential oil forms about 0.4% of the plant, does not depositing crystals of menthol at 12°, has D 0.918–0.920, and distills chiefly at 210°. As much as 2.5% of furfuraldehyde is present, and is removed by means of permanganate. Free acid is present to about 0.7%, and phenols are present in traces. Menthol appears to be absent. The terpenes have not so far been characterized.

Optical Activity of Cinnamein. L. ROSENTHALER (*Chem. Ztg.*, 1914, ii, 36–37; from *Schweiz. Apoth.-Zeit.*, 1914, 52, 273–275). The rotations of the cinnameins isolated from genuine and false balsams and from some artificial products have been measured in alcoholic and ethereal solutions. The majority of the extracts from genuine balsams had a small dextrorotation. In addition, a

cin content was determined, as well as the saponification number of the balsam and of the cinnamoin which was isolated from it.

J. C. W.

Synthetic Caoutchouc. I. I. ANDRÉEV (*Chem. Zentr.*, 1914, ii, 3-36, from *Ber. St. Petersburg Polytech. Inst.*, 1913, 21, 313-368).—His apparatus is described, with diagrams, in which turpentine may be decomposed by means of an electrically heated platinum wire, and is converted into isoprene. The addition of carvone, dipentene, or aromatic hydrocarbons is found to improve the yield of isoprene.

J. C. W.

The Gitalin Question. L. ROSENTHALER (*Chem. Zentr.*, 1914, ii, 3-36, from *Schweiz. Apoth.-Zeit.*, 1914, 52, 349-350).—The author agrees with Kiliani (this vol., i, 857) that gitalin is a mixture. He separated it into a fraction which forms a hydrate and one which is not, and has isolated a crystalline substance which is physiologically inactive, and seems to differ from any known constituent of digitalis.

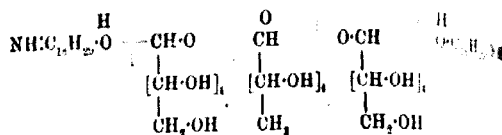
J. C. W.

Dimethylpyrone Hydrochloride. H. N. K. ROBEAM (*Översigt. Svenska Vetensk. Selskabs. Forhandl.*, 1914, 243-262).—The modifications which have hitherto been carried out have not made it clear whether dimethylpyrone hydrochloride acts as a true salt in aqueous solution, or whether it is resolved into the components dimethylpyrone and hydrochloric acid. In order to decide the question, the author has determined the concentration of the chloride ion in solutions of varying strength, by measuring the potential of the electrode: a solid Hg_2Cl_2 solution of dimethylpyrone hydrochloride, against a calomel electrode; similar measurements were made with aqueous solutions of hydrochloric acid. The equivalent conductivities of all the solutions were also measured, and on plotting the values of the chloride ion concentrations (abscissae) against the equivalent activities (ordinates) it is found that the curve for dimethylpyrone hydrochloride lies below that for hydrochloric acid, both curves reaching the same value for infinite dilution. The conclusion is therefore that dimethylpyrone exists as a true salt in solution; it is hydrolysed to some extent, the hydrolysis constant being 0.63, and the ionization constant of dimethylpyrone as base is calculated to be 10^{-14} (compare Walden, A., 1902, i, 168).

T. S. P.

Solanine-s. VIII. Nature of the Glucosidic Condensation Solanine-s; Glucosides in General. GIUSEPPE ODDO and MELLO CESARIS (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 44, ii, 181-190. Compare this vol., i, 141).—The hydrolysis of solanine-s from *Solanum solanaceum* yields mannose, d-galactose, dextrose and d-aldomethylpentose: $C_{44}H_{80}O_{15}N_2H_2O = 2C_{18}H_{31}ON + C_6H_{12}O_6 + C_6H_{12}O_6 + C_6H_{12}O_6$. Molecule of water of crystallisation sufficing for the decomposition. Solanine-s does not react with phenylhydrazine or hydroxylamine; rather, the only oxygen atom of solanidine-s is hydroxylic, and the nitrogen is present in the form of the imino-group in both compounds.

From these results, the structure of solanine-s and the manner in which water is added to it on hydrolysis are represented thus:



Solanidine. Dextrose. Methylpentose. d-Galactose.

The results obtained by Oddo and Mameli (A., 1904, i, 280) with acetals prepared from dichloroacetaldehyde hydrate are utilized in elaborating a theory to explain the synthesis of solanine from its constituents.

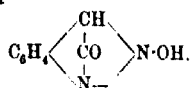
Solanine-s. IX. **Solanidine sodomaeum** and Some of its **Products of Disintegration.** GIUSEPPE ODDO AND MARCELLO MAMELI (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 44, ii, 191—208).—*Solanidine ether*, $(\text{NH}\cdot\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{27}\cdot\text{O})_4$, obtained by the action of hydrochloric acid on solanidine-s in alcoholic solution, crystallises in needles, m. p. $176-177^\circ$, $[\alpha]_D^{20} -141.5$ in benzene and has the molecular weight 373—425 in freezing benzene and 248—259 in freezing acetic acid, the calculated value being 372. When its alcoholic solution is poured on to concentrated sulphuric acid, a yellow ring, changing to orange, forms at the surface on separation. When treated with nitrous acid, the ether yields a *nitroso compound*, $[\text{N}(\text{OH})_2\cdot\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{29}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{O}\cdot\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{29}\cdot\text{N}]_2\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{OH}$, 2 mols. of ether reacting with 3 mols. of the acid, with elimination of H_2 . This compound forms pale reddish-yellow needles, m. p. $224-225^\circ$ (decomp.). It gives neither a blue coloration with diphenylamine, nor the characteristic reaction of nitroso-compounds with Lieberman's reagent. When treated with acid or alkali, it yields solanidine ether.

The compound described as azosolanidine (A., 1911, i, 671) has been found to have the composition $\text{C}_{72}\text{H}_{116}\text{O}_9\text{N}_8$ [$= 4(\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{29}\text{ON}, \text{HNO})_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$]. When treated with hydrochloric acid it gives *dihydrosolanidine ether*, $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{33}\text{Cl}$ (i), m. p. 113° , and another compound, m. p. $110-111^\circ$, which appears to be a chlorinated alcohol, $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{33}\text{OCl}$.

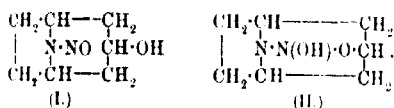
No definite compounds could be separated from the products of the action of energetic dehydrating or oxidising agents on solanidine-s.

Action of Nitrous Acid on Amines. Behaviour Towards **Tropigenine and Granatoline.** I. GIUSEPPE ODDO AND MARCELLO MAMELI (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 44, ii, 209—227).—From the results of their investigations on the action of nitrous acid on solanine-s and solanidine (compare preceding abstract), the authors draw the conclusion that the action of nitrous acid on a primary or secondary amine results in the formation of the corresponding nitrite, $\text{NHR}^1\text{R}^2\cdot\text{HNO}$, which undergoes transformation into an *as-dihydroxyhydrazine derivative*, $\text{NR}^1\text{R}^2\cdot\text{N}(\text{OH})_2$. The further decomposition of the latter varies with the nature of the radicles present, and may follow one or other of three types, which have been named: (1) *Anazoic*. In this case ammonium nitrite yields nitrogen and water; primary amines, the

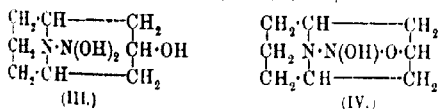
and an alcohol, and secondary amines, nitrogen and either alcohol, or, if $R^1 = R^2$, a single alcohol. (2) *Diazoic*. Here, phosphorus nitrite yields nitrosoamine, $NH_2 \cdot NO$, or isonitrosoimide, $R \cdot NOH$; primary amines give nitrosoamines, $NHR \cdot NO$, or diazoamides, $R \cdot N \cdot N \cdot OH$, and secondary amines, true nitroso-compounds, $R_2 \cdot NO$. (3) *Cyclazoic*, which either gives stable azocyclic compounds or ψ -nitroso-compounds, such as $C_6H_5 \cdot CO \cdot C \begin{smallmatrix} \nearrow N \cdot OH \\ \searrow NH \end{smallmatrix}$, from phosphorus nitrite, or results in the opening of the nucleus and formation of *all*nitroso-compounds, for instance, *all*nitroso-acids $C_6H_5 \cdot \begin{smallmatrix} CH(NO) \\ \nearrow NH \end{smallmatrix} \cdot CO$, from ψ -nitroso-oxindole,



A true dihydroxyhydrazine derivative is obtained by the action of nitrous acid on the ether of solanidine *s* (*loc. cit.*). With the compound obtained from solanidine-*s* and solanidine-*s*, the complete elimination of the nitrogen by the action of acids shows that in these cases the action of nitrous acid proceeds immediately to the cyclazoic stage. Since the sole difference between solanidine *s* and its ether consists in the presence of a hydroxyl group in the former, it has been thought desirable to study the action of nitrous acid on tropogenine and anetoline, which are saturated, alicyclic, iminic, alcoholic bases of higher structure. In aqueous solution faintly acidified with acetic acid, tropogenine yields the corresponding nitrite at the ordinary temperature. At the temperature of a boiling-water bath, however, the reaction yields a compound which has the composition, but none of the properties of the true nitroso-compound (I) and is regarded as the cyclic ψ -nitroso-compound (II):



A compound is accompanied by two others in small proportions, the more abundant having the properties of the hydrate of a true nitroso-compound, that is, of the intermediate dihydroxyhydrazine derivative. The interaction of granatoline hydrochloride and silver nitrite gives nitrite of the base, and this in aqueous solution is converted by the acid into the hydrate of the true nitroso-compound (III) as prepared by Ciamician and Silber, A., 1895, i, 160.



In a vacuum, this hydrate gradually loses $1H_2O$, with formation of the

compound, m. p. 125°, which was obtained by Ciamician and others and is the ψ -nitroso-compound (IV).

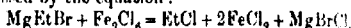
Tropigenine nitrite, C_7H_9ON, HNO_2 , prepared by the action of silver nitrite on the hydrochloride of the base, forms a white crystalline powder, which turns yellow at about 100° and m. p. 160°.

ψ -Nitrosotropigenine (formula II) forms rosettes of white needles, m. p. 195—196°. *Nitrosotropigenine hydrate* has a structure analogous to that of the corresponding granatoline derivative (formula III), and forms white crystals, m. p. about 160° (decomp.).

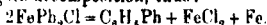
Granatoline nitrite, $C_{10}H_{11}ON, HNO_2$, forms white needles, m. p. 215—216° (decomp.). *Nitrogranatoline hydrate* (formula III) forms white leaflets, m. p. 72—73°. ψ -Nitroso, granatoline (formula II) m. p. 125°, yields an *ethyl ether*, $C_{10}H_{19}O_2N_2$, white prisms, m. p. 65—67°.

T. H. P.

Direct Attempts to Prepare Ferropyrroles. I. BATES AND ODDO (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 44, ii, 268—278).—The author discusses the occurrence of iron and magnesium in hemoglobin and chlorophyll respectively and their derivatives. It is not found possible to prepare organic ferro-compounds containing alkyl or aryl groups, the action of ferric chloride on magnesium ethyl bromide being a chlorination action, expressed by the equation:



With magnesium phenyl bromide and magnesium benzyl bromide the action of ferric chloride yields diphenyl and dibenzyl respectively, the result indicating the intermediate formation of an organo-ferrous compound which then undergoes decomposition, thus:



With an organo-magnesium derivative containing a 2-methyl-5-pentyl residue, the action of ferric chloride gives, however, a more complicated product, *di-2-methylindolyl ferrichloride*, $CH \begin{smallmatrix} C_6H_4 \\ \diagup \\ CMe \end{smallmatrix} N \cdot FeCl \cdot N \begin{smallmatrix} C_6H_4 \\ \diagdown \\ CMe \end{smallmatrix}$, a yellow solid, blackening and contracting at about 130°, and remains unmelted at 230°.

T. H. P.

Salts of Acridine, Pyridine, and Quinoline. II. L. H. CRANE (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2101—2110).—It has been shown by the author (A., 1913, i, 92) that when diphenylacridyl chloride or 5-phenyl-10-methylacridyl chloride is shaken with nitrobenzene and molecular silver, a highly coloured solution is produced which absorbs oxygen. It was assumed that these coloured solutions contain acridyl radicals analogous to triphenylmethyl. Evidence has now been obtained which proves the accuracy of this assumption, and several unsaturated acridyl radicals and their peroxides have been isolated. The free radicals are dark brownish-red, crystalline substances which in solution absorb oxygen from the air to form colourless peroxides and also unite directly with halogens with production of the corresponding haloids. They are best prepared by shaking an aqueous solution of a salt, preferably the sulphate, with zinc dust. The

was coated with the free radicle and the liquid becomes colourless. During the colourless solution and adding benzene to the moist base, the benzene dissolves the free radicle, forming a dark red base. On shaking this benzene solution with air, its colour rapidly appears and the colourless peroxide soon begins to separate.

Diphenylacridyl, $C_{25}H_{18}N$, can be prepared by the method already noted or less satisfactorily by the electrolysis of its normal sulphate; it is when heated and melts at about $185-190^\circ$. Molecular weight determinations have shown that it exists mainly in the unimolecular form. The radicle unites instantly with chlorine to form yellow diphenylacridyl chloride, and also dissolves slowly in hydrochloric acid to form the chloride. The peroxide, $C_{50}H_{36}N_2O_2$, crystallises in colourless, pale yellow prisms, and when heated begins to darken at 190° and melts at $204-207^\circ$ according to the rate of heating; it dissolves slowly in mineral acids with formation of the corresponding salts. When an aqueous solution of diphenylacridyl chloride is treated with zinc dust, diphenylacridyl is produced together with a quantity of dihydrodiphenylacridine ("diphenylacridane"), $C_{25}H_{20}N$, m. p. 175° , which crystallises in cubes; this substance can be prepared by adding zinc dust to a boiling solution of diphenylacridyl in acetic acid.

A following substances have also been prepared together with salts, free radicles, and peroxides, and will be described separately: *p*-chlorophenyl-10-phenylacridol, *p*-methoxyphenyl-10-phenylacridol, 2:4-dimethoxyphenyl-10-phenylacridol, phenyl-10-methylacridol, and phenyl-10-ethylacridol.

E. G.

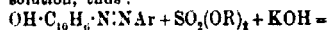
XXXXX XV. 5-Amino-6-ethylamino-2:3-dihydro-2-pyrimidone and 2:8-Dioxy-9-ethyl-2:3:8:9-tetrahydropyrimidine. CARL O. JONES and BYRON M. HENDRIX (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 5-30. Compare this vol., i, 440).—2:8-Dioxy-9-ethyl-2:3:8:9-tetrahydropyrimidine has been prepared for the purpose of comparing properties with those of the methylated compounds, 2:8-dioxy-6-methyl-2:3:8:9-tetrahydropyrimidine (A., 1913, i, 1000) and 2-methyl-9-ethyl-2:3-dihydropyrimidine (*ibid.*, i, 1397).

2-Ethylthiol-6-ethylaminopyrimidine, $NHEt \cdot C \begin{smallmatrix} \nearrow N \cdot C(SEt) \\ \searrow CH=CH \end{smallmatrix} N$, b. p.

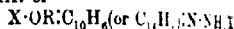
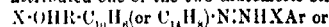
11 mm., obtained in almost quantitative yield by heating 2-ethylthiolpyrimidine and 33% aqueous ethylamine at 100° in a sealed tube, is converted by boiling with concentrated hydrochloric acid and subsequent evaporation to dryness with sodium hydroxide into 6-ethylamino-2:3-dihydro-2-pyrimidone, $C_5H_7N_2O$, bluntly pointed prisms, m. p. 218° . The latter, by heating with concentrated sulphuric acid and nitric acid (D 1:5) at 70° , yields quantitatively 5-nitro-6-ethylamino-2:3-dihydro-2-pyrimidone, acicular prisms, decomp. 275° , which is converted into 6-ethylamino-2:3-dihydro-2-pyrimidone, stout prisms, decomp. 275° by reduction with aqueous ammonia and ferrous sulphate at the same temperature. The base develops in ammoniacal solution a blue coloration with phosphotungstic acid and reacts with red carbamide at $170-180^\circ$ to form 2:8-dioxy-9-ethyl-2:3:8:9-

tetrahydropurine, $\begin{matrix} \text{N}=\text{CH}\cdot\text{C}\cdot\text{NH} \\ \text{CO}\cdot\text{NH}\cdot\text{C}\cdot\text{NEt} \end{matrix} > \text{CO}$, small prisms, decompose at 300°.

Etherification of *o*-Hydroxyazo compounds. V. G. GILMAN and G. FERRERI (*Gazzetta*, 1914, 44, ii, 228—256. Compare *ibid.* i, 597, 599, 748).—The *o*-hydroxyazo-compounds derived from *o*-naphthol and from 10-hydroxyphenanthrene, that is, the 2-aryazo-naphthols and the 9-aryazo-10-hydroxyphenanthrenes, react with methyl or ethyl sulphate in the presence of concentrated alkali solution, thus:



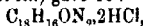
The ethers obtained in this way are well-crystallised, orange or red compounds, which are markedly more soluble in organic solvents, and melt, without decomposing, at lower temperatures than the corresponding *o*-hydroxyazo compounds. They are also decidedly basic than the latter, owing to the intensification of the basic properties of the oxygen consequent on etherification. All salts isolated and analysed contain two equivalents of acid, and of the 10-hydroxyphenanthrene series, which could not be made to react as though the base is diacid. To these salts, therefore, attributed one of the two tautomeric structures:



where X represents a halogen atom or a univalent acid residue. Nascent hydrogen decomposes the ethers into a primary amine NH_2 and an ether of an aminophenol, $\text{OR}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6(\text{or } \text{C}_{14}\text{H}_8)\cdot\text{NH}_2$. The ethers are extremely resistant to the action of boiling caustic alkali hydroxide solution, but towards acids their behaviour varies. The 2-aryazo-1-naphthols are, with some exceptions, highly resistant to boiling dilute or concentrated acid, and, when heated, their hydrochlorides suffer loss of hydrogen chloride without decomposition of the ether; on the other hand, the 9-aryazo-10-hydroxyphenanthrenes, also 2-*o*-methoxy- and 2-*o*-ethoxy-benzeneazo-1-naphthols are hydrolysed readily by dilute acid, their hydrochlorides being largely decomposed on heating into the corresponding hydroxyazo-compounds and the chlorides of the alkyl radicles of the ethers.

2-Benzeneazo-1-naphthyl methyl ether hydrochloride, $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{14}\text{ON}_2$, forms dark red needles with metallic, green reflection; Noetting, Grandmougin, and Freimann, A., 1909, i, 442.

2-Benzeneazo-1-naphthyl ethyl ether has m. p. 46°; Noetting, Grandmougin, and Freimann (*loc. cit.*) gave 44°. Its hydrochloride,



forms dark garnet-red scales with metallic, golden reflection; nitrate, $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{16}\text{ON}_2\cdot 2\text{HNO}_3$, loses nitrous vapours at 47—50°; residue melting at 143—145°.

2-*o*-Tolueneazo-1-naphthyl methyl ether, $\text{OMe}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\cdot\text{N}:\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$, crystallises in mammillary masses of orange-yellow needles, m. p. 60—61°, and forms a red solution in concentrated sulphuric acid; its hydrochloride forms shining, cantharides-green scales. The

ethyl ether, $C_{10}H_8ON_2$, forms yellow, acicular crystals, m. p. 117—118°, and its *hydrochloride*, metallic golden scales).

1-m-toluenazo-1-naphthol, $OH \cdot C_{10}H_7 \cdot N \cdot N \cdot C_6H_4Me$, prepared by the action of *m*-tolylhydrazine hydrochloride on β -naphthaquinone, forms secondary aggregates of slender, bright red needles, m. p. 117—118°, and its *hydrochloride* a ruby-red solution in concentrated sulphuric acid. The *ethyl ether* forms chrome-yellow scales, m. p. 49—50°, and its *hydrochloride*, bronze needles. The *ethyl ether* forms orange-red prisms, m. p. 49—50°, and its *hydrochloride*, mammillary masses of garnet-red crystals.

1-toluenazo-1-naphthyl methyl ether forms orange-red needles, m. p. 77—78°, and its *hydrochloride*, minute, brick-red needles. The *ethyl ether* forms slender, orange-yellow needles, m. p. 51°, and its *hydrochloride*, deep garnet needles.

1-m-xyleneazo-1-naphthol, $OH \cdot C_{10}H_6 \cdot N \cdot N \cdot C_6H_3Me_2$, prepared by action of *as-m*-xylidylhydrazine hydrochloride on β -naphthaquinone, forms deep red scales or needles with metallic, golden reflection, m. p. 89—90°.

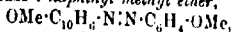
The *methyl ether* forms slender, orange yellow crystals, m. p. 89—90°, and its *hydrochloride*, metallic, green crystals. The *ethyl ether* forms bright red prisms, m. p. 89°, and its *hydrochloride*, golden scales.

1-cumeneazo-1-naphthol, $OH \cdot C_{10}H_6 \cdot N \cdot N \cdot C_6H_4Me$, crystallises in leaflets or needles with faint golden reflection, m. p. 194—195°.

The *methyl ether* forms orange-yellow prismatic needles, m. p. 82—83°, and its *hydrochloride*, golden green leaflets. The *ethyl ether* forms red prisms, m. p. 64°, and its *hydrochloride*, cantharides-green needles.

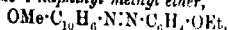
1-1-nitrobenzeneazo-1-naphthol, $OH \cdot C_{10}H_6 \cdot N \cdot N \cdot C_6H_4Cl$, forms bright red leaflets, m. p. 187°. The *methyl ether* crystallises in orange-red leaflets, m. p. 111°, and its *hydrochloride* in dark green, acicular needles. The *ethyl ether* forms orange-red, acicular crystals, m. p. 85—86°, and its *hydrochloride*, heavy, cantharides-green plates.

1-methoxybenzeneazo-1-naphthyl methyl ether,



forms bright red prisms, m. p. 90—91°, and its *hydrochloride*, greenish-red needles or leaflets with metallic reflection. The *ethyl ether* forms red prisms, m. p. 88—89°, and its *hydrochloride*, slender, cantharides green needles.

1-ethoxybenzeneazo-1-naphthyl methyl ether,



crystallises in brick-red needles, m. p. 62°, and its *hydrochloride*, in samples green needles. The *ethyl ether* forms bright red needles, m. p. 62°, and its *hydrochloride*, slender, bronze-green needles.

1-benzeneazo-10-methoxyphenanthrene, $OMe \cdot C_{14}H_8 \cdot N \cdot NPh$, forms bright red prisms, m. p. 88—89°, and, on reduction by means of zinc and acetic acid, yields aniline and a basic compound, which is 9-amino-10-methoxyphenanthrene. The corresponding 10-glycidyl derivative, $C_{22}H_{16}ON_2$, forms bright red, flattened needles, m. p. 249—250°, and on treatment with ethereal nitric acid yields benzene-nitrate, 9-nitro-10-ethoxyphenanthrene, and a compound which crystallises in pale red needles, m. p. 249—250° (decomp.), and is 9-nitro-9-benzeneazo-10-hydroxyphenanthrene; its behaviour on reduction appears similar to that of the methoxy-compound.

The interaction of *o*-phenylmethylhydrazine hydrochloride and phenanthraquinone in boiling acetic acid yields neither benzenezo-10-hydroxyphenanthrene nor its methyl ether, but a compound which forms pale yellow leaflets, m. p. 221—222° and under investigation.

9-*o*-Toluenazo-10-hydroxyphenanthrene, $\text{OH}\cdot\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_9\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_4$, forms minute, orange-red scales with golden reflection, m. p. 221—222° and the corresponding ethyl ether, flat, garnet coloured leaflets, m. p. 109°.

9-*p*-Toluenazo-10-hydroxyphenanthrene, $\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_9\text{ON}$, forms large bright red needles, m. p. 169°; its methyl ether, dense, bright red needles, m. p. 117°, and its ethyl ether, lustrous, bright red plates, m. p. 158°.

9-*o*-Methoxybenzenazo-10-hydroxyphenanthrene,
 $\text{OH}\cdot\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_8\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\cdot\text{OMe}$,
 forms red leaflets with golden reflection, m. p. 248—249° and its ethyl ether, red needles, m. p. 140—141°.

Aminoazo-compounds. L. CASALE and MARIA CASALE (Atti R. Accad. Sci. Torino, 1914, 49, 1199—1200).—The authors have prepared a number of new aminoazo-compounds by coupling *o*-naphthylamine with diazonium salts obtained from azobenzene substituted in the ortho-position. In the products obtained, the azo-group occurs in the para-position to the amino group of the naphthalene residue, since 4-*o*-toluenazo-1-naphthylamine, for example, yields naphthylene-1:4-diamine on reduction.

4-*o*-Toluenazo-1-naphthylamine, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Me}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_7\cdot\text{NH}_2$, crystallises in bright red, silky needles, m. p. 95°, and yields concentrated solutions in chloroform, benzene or alcohol, and an intensely red solution in acetic acid; it gives a red coloration with concentrated and a violet one with dilute, sulphuric acid. Its *monoacetyl* derivative, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Me}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\cdot\text{NHAc}$, orange-red needles, m. p. 215°, its *diacetyl* derivative, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Me}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\cdot\text{NAc}_2$, brick-red, prismatic plates, m. p. 136°, and *benzoyl* derivative, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Me}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\cdot\text{NHCOPh}$, yellow needles, m. p. 200°, were prepared. When excess of sodium nitrite is used in the diazotisation of the *o*-toluidine, the above compound is accompanied by 4-*o*-toluenazo-1-naphthol.

4-*o*-Methoxybenzenazo-1-naphthylamine, $\text{OMe}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_7\cdot\text{NH}_2$, forms tufts of crimson needles, m. p. 184—185°, and gives deep red solutions in chloroform, alcohol or ether, and an intensely violet solution in acetic acid. Its *acetyl* derivative, $\text{OMe}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\cdot\text{NHAc}$, forms garnet-red needles, m. p. 203—204°, and its *benzoyl* derivative, $\text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{19}\text{O}_2\text{N}_3$, orange-red needles, m. p. 182°. Here, too, the use of sodium nitrite in excess results in the formation of 4-*o*-methoxybenzenazo-1-naphthol (compare Charrier and Casale, this vol. 748).

4-*o*-Ethoxybenzenazo-1-naphthylamine, $\text{OEt}\cdot\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{N}\cdot\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_7\cdot\text{NH}_2$, forms groups of vermillion crystals, m. p. 169°; its *acetyl* derivative, $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{15}\text{O}_2\text{N}_3$, red, prismatic needles, m. p. 191°, and its *benzoyl* derivative, $\text{C}_{23}\text{H}_{18}\text{O}_2\text{N}_3$, tufts of green, silky needles, m. p. 180°.

2-nitrobenzeno-1-naphthylamine, $\text{NO}_2 \cdot \text{C}_6\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{N} \cdot \text{N} \cdot \text{C}_{10}\text{H}_7 \cdot \text{NH}_2$, shining, emerald-green scales, m. p. $174-175^\circ$, and gives nearly red solutions in alcohol, benzene, chloroform or ether. Its derivative, $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{14}\text{O}_3\text{N}_2$, forms tufts of shining, pale green needles, m. p. 200° , and its benzoyl derivative, $\text{C}_{21}\text{H}_{16}\text{O}_3\text{N}_2$, shining, black plates with red reflection, m. p. 185° .
T. H. P.

Phosphorus Content of Caseinogen. ALFRED W. BOSWORTH and LUCAS L. VAN SLYKE (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 67-71. Compare A. 1913, i, 659).—Additional evidence is adduced to show that caseinogen contains only about 0.7% of phosphorus (compare Price and Macallum, this vol., i, 442).
H. W. B.

Mode of Action of Urease and of Enzymes in General.

D. VAN SLYKE and GLENN E. CULLEN (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 141-180. Compare this vol., i, 606).—The consideration of the already published (*loc. cit.*), and now described in detail, leads to the conclusion that urease destroys urea by means of two successive stages: (1) combination of enzyme and substrate; (2) disruption of the combination, the urea being freed as ammonia and carbon dioxide. This process is formulated in accordance with the law of mass action, and the equation $t = 1/E[1/c \log a/(a-x) + x/d]$, where a represents the amount of substrate (urea) present per unit volume at the beginning of the reaction, x the amount decomposed in time t , E the enzyme concentration, c the velocity of combination of enzyme and substrate, and d the velocity at which the combination decomposes, free ammonium carbonate and free enzyme, is found accurately to represent all the results thus far obtained.
H. W. B.

Effect of Hydrogen Ion Concentration and of Inhibiting Substances on Urease.

DONALD D. VAN SLYKE and GOTTHARD MARSHALL (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 181-210. Compare Marshall, this vol., i, 596; Armstrong and Horton, A., 1912, i, 594; and the preceding abstract).—The authors have measured the rates of decomposition of urea by urease when the hydrogen ion concentration has been fixed at constant levels by Sørensen's method (A., 1909, i, 861). Changes in the concentration of hydrogen ion have absolutely direct and independent effects on the two successive reactions: combination with substrate; (ii) decomposition of combined substrate by which the enzyme destroys urea. Throughout the range of experimental observation ($P_H = 5.9$ to 8.7), the combining velocity has found to vary in inverse ratio to the hydrogen ion concentration: the more alkaline the solution the more rapid the combination, but the decomposition by enzyme of the urea combined with it is rapid in neutral solution and is retarded by either alkalinity or acidity.

In the absence of inhibiting substances such as salts and dextrose, provided the concentration of urea lies between 0.08 and 10%, the combination of urease and urea is so quick that it consumes a hardly measurable proportion of the total time, which is almost entirely made up by the slower decomposition reaction. The maximum rate of

ammonia formation under these conditions is consequently that of the decomposition reaction, and takes place when the mixture is maintained at the neutral point. When, however, the reaction is retarded by adding neutral salts or using dilute solutions, it becomes an appreciable factor in the total time of reaction, and the optimum hydrogen ion concentration for the enzyme action is therefore shifted towards the alkaline side. The effect of hydrogen ion concentration on invertase may also be accounted for as the sum of independent effects on the two separate phases of enzyme action.

The effect of the generated ammonium carbonate in retarding the action of urease is due chiefly to the alkalinity of the carbonate. When a phosphate mixture prevents the ammonium carbonate from affecting the hydrogen-ion concentration, it also prevents its effect on the velocity. Neutral salts retard the action of urease by interfering with the combination of enzyme with substrate. This effect is the greater the more dilute the urea solution, and consequently it is especially the decomposition of the last traces of urea that is retarded by neutral salts.

Dextrose retards the enzyme action in the same manner as neutral salts. Alcohol in 30% concentration depresses both phases of the enzyme's action. Both electrolytes and non-electrolytes at molar or bimolecular concentration retard the enzyme action in its second phase, namely, the decomposition of urea after it has combined with urease. All these effects can be represented by the general mass-action formula for enzyme action already set forth (*loc. cit.*). H. W. 2.

Enzyme Action. XI. Some Experiments with Castor Bean Urease. K. GEORGE FALK and K. SUGIURA (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2166—2170).—In an earlier paper (Falk, A., 1913, 35, 1114) it has been shown that castor beans contain a urease. Further experiments have now been made in comparison with the urease of beans. It has been found that, under comparable conditions, bean preparations hydrolyse much less urea than similar castor bean preparations. The action of acids, bases, and salts on the hydrolysis of urea by castor bean urease has been studied and has been found similar to those which have been observed in the case of bean urease. E. J.

Physiological Chemistry.

Influence of Pituitrin on Respiration. L. B. NICHOLS and R. O. COURTRIGHT (*Amer. J. Physiol.*, 1914, 35, 194—207). The characteristic effect of pituitary extract on respiration is an increase in the depth, followed by a shallowness and a decrease in the rate of breathing. In some cases, however, the increase in

of respiration is followed by shallowness and an increase in the rate of breathing. The effect of pituitrin on the respiratory mechanism occurs synchronously with that on the circulatory mechanism. The effect on respiration, however, passes off sooner than that on circulation. After a few injections of pituitrin, the respiratory mechanism becomes immune and the characteristic responses are not elicited.

H. W. B.

Normal Level of Blood-Sugar of the Dog. PHILIP A. MAYER (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 297—302).—The author finds that the concentration of dextrose in the blood of normal dogs, when the animals are free from excitement or pain, is in the neighborhood of 0.05%, or about one-half to one-third the values lately accepted as normal. Higher figures are obtained after anesthesia or when the animal is excited. These higher results are comparable with those hitherto regarded as normal, which may represent varying degrees of emotional hyperglycemia brought about by the procedure of drawing the blood.

H. W. B.

The Fat of Blood. I. Fat Content of the Blood under approximately Normal Conditions. W. R. BLOOR (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 1—24).—The author has determined the fat content of dog's blood, in various circumstances, by his nephelometric method (this vol., ii, 392). In normal circumstances, the fat content of the blood is practically constant, both for the individual and the species, amounting to 0.59 gram per 100 grams of blood. After a fat meal, the fat in the blood increases gradually, reaching a maximum in about six hours. If the thoracic duct is tied, however, an increase in the fat does not occur after feeding with fat. Intravenously injected fat, in quantities up to 0.4 gram per 100 g. of body-weight, disappears from the blood within five days. When larger amounts are injected, some of the fat remains in the blood for several hours. Apparently the liver is unable to withdraw from the blood, and loosely store, a certain amount of fat, but the storage capacity is limited.

Starvation and the administration of chloroform produce an increase in the fat of blood only when the animal has previously been supplied with fatty foods. Ether, however, regularly causes a rise in the fat content of the blood during the narcosis. Loosely stored fat may, therefore, be quickly released by certain anesthetics, and the sudden flooding of the organism with fat may be a potential source of danger. In the animals that died under the ether there was observed a rapid and continuous rise in the content of the blood during the anesthesia until death.

H. W. B.

Free and Total Non-Protein Nitrogen in Normal Human Blood: Relation of their Concentration to Rate of Elimination. FRANKLIN C. McLEAN and LAURENCE SELLING (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1919, 31—38).—The authors have determined by Folin's method

the relation between the concentration of urea in the blood and its corresponding rate of elimination in the urine. The concentration of urea and of total non-protein nitrogen in normal human blood varies within wide limits according to various factors, such as diet, amount of fluid ingested, etc. There is, however, a parallelism between the concentration of urea in the blood and the amount excreted in the urine in normal individuals on average conditions. The elimination of urea is retarded if sufficient water is taken, and the retention of urea is even more marked in cases of nephritis. A high concentration of urea in the blood is not necessarily a sign of pathological renal function unless associated with a relative decrease in the amount of urea eliminated in the urine.

H. W. J.

Proteins of the Blood of *Limulus Polyphemus*, L. (C. ALBERG (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 77-82).—The proteins of the blood of *Limulus* consist almost exclusively of the clotting (which differs greatly from ordinary fibrinogen) and haemocyanin. Haemocyanin is several times as abundant as the clotting protein. Other proteins occur only in minimal amounts. The blood contains a small amount of nitrogen in non-coagulable form.

The quantity of protein in the blood seems to vary with the state of nutrition of the animal, diminishing in starvation. The blood of *Octopus* contains at least twice as much haemocyanin as that of *Limulus*. The haemocyanin of *Limulus* coagulates at 67-68°.

H. W. J.

Carbohydrate Metabolism. VII. Influence of Subcutaneous Injections of Dextrose and of Calcium Lactate on the Sugar in the Blood and on Tetany after Thyroparathyroidectomy. FRANK P. UNDERHILL and NORMAN R. BACHMAN (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 119-126).—Compare this volume, p. 114. The hypoglycemia resulting from thyroparathyroidectomy is to be neither the cause nor the effect of the accompanying tetany, for although injections of dextrose raise the sugar in the blood to the normal amount, such injections have little effect on the tetany. Moreover, the condition of hypoglycemia precedes that of tetany. The authors therefore suggest that the removal of the thyroids and parathyroids gives rise to two distinct effects, one affecting the mechanism concerned in the maintenance of the sugar content of the blood at its normal level, thereby causing hypoglycemia, and the other acting on the nervous system, producing tetany. Calcium appears to be intimately associated with these effects, for injections of calcium lactate will temporarily restore the normal sugar content of the blood and also abolish tetany.

H. W. J.

Basal Metabolism and Creatinine Elimination. WALTER PALMER, JAMES H. MEANS, and JAMES L. GAMBLE (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 239-241).—The authors have determined the relationship between basal metabolism (minimum heat production)

animal at rest, at least twelve hours after food, and surrounded by a temperature of 30°) and the total mass of active protoplasmic metabolism of which is represented by the urinary creatinine excretion on a creatine-creatinine-free diet. The number of mg. of creatinine varied in eight men from 0.89 to 1.57, average 0.98, whilst in nine women the number ranged from 0.89 to 1.57, average 1.26. Definite conclusions as to the value and significance of these results are deferred until further observations have been made.

H. W. B.

Osmotic Exchange in Decerebrate Animals. CHARLES G. L. Lusk and T. S. HELIX (*J. Physiol.*, 1914, 48, 428-442). The decerebrate animal responds to carbohydrates and proteins in the same way as the intact animal. The rise in the total metabolism following administration of protein is accompanied by a rise in the protein nitrogen of the blood. The decerebrate animal responds to small amounts of amino-acids, such as glycine, which cause a very considerable rise in the protein metabolism. Glycine injected into the blood-stream, causes a greater rise in metabolism than was found by Lusk (*A.*, 1913, i, 123), who administered this substance *per os*.

S. B. S.

Inhibition of Autolysis [of Liver] by Alcohol. H. GIDEON Lusk and GEORGE T. CALDWELL (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 57-65). In experiments were performed primarily to ascertain what strength of alcohol is necessary to preserve specimens of tissue for histological purposes. The results show that for the complete suppression of autolytic disintegration of liver tissue by alcohol the actual strength of alcohol present cannot be safely less than 90%; between 80 and 90% a slight autolysis may take place and below 80% alcohol concentration, autolysis is certain to take place at either room or incubator temperature. Small blocks of tissue not greater than 5 x 1 x 1 cm. must therefore be placed in at least 50 c.c. of 96% alcohol to prevent autolytic changes.

When experimenting with finely minced tissues, at least 10 c.c. of 96% alcohol must be added for each gram of tissue to ensure effective preservation. When not contraindicated, it is best to boil the tissues a short time in the alcohol to destroy the enzymes.

H. W. B.

Metabolic Changes in Muscular Tissue. I. The Fate of Amino-acids. S. A. MATTHEWS and C. FERNANDUS (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 229-234. Compare Fiske and Porter, this vol., i, 1019).—After repeated injections of a diuretic solution into (1) dogs with an Eck-fistula, and (2) eviscerated dogs, the urine becomes practically free from ammonia, and contains only a small amount of nitrogenous substances. If, now, a solution of mixed amino-acids is injected subcutaneously, ammonia appears in the urine, followed usually by an increase in the amount excreted. The conclusion drawn by the authors is that the first

action of the tissues on amino-acids is the formation of ammonia and then the production of urea. The latter change is due to the assistance of the liver.

Reversibility of the Geotropism of *Arenicola* Larvae. SAKYO KANDA (*Amer. J. Physiol.*, 1914, 35, 162—171). The addition of calcium and magnesium salts in isotonic solution to sea-water containing the larvae of *Arenicola cristatus* reverses the normal negative geotropism of these organisms without affecting the normal positive heliotropism. Sodium and potassium salts, as well as acids and alkalis, have no action on the geotropism, but prevent the appearance of positive heliotropism. The reversal of the negative geotropism of the larvae is not an osmotic effect, but is due to the specific action of the calcium and magnesium ions.

Purine Enzymes of the Opossum (*Didelphis Virginiana*). GEORGE T. CALDWELL and H. GIDEON WELLS (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 279—283). Compare Hunter and Givens, A., 1913, 1, 115. The tissues of the opossum, enzymes acting on free purines were found distributed as follows: uricase (uricolytic enzyme) present only in the liver; xantho-oxydase, present in the liver, probably in the kidney; guanase, present in all tissues, probably not present in any of the tissues, except possibly in the liver.

Excretion of Creatinine by Normal Women. MARTHA H. and ELIZABETH E. CLARK (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 115—122). The analysis of the urines of twenty-six women students on creatine- and creatinine-free diet gave the following average values for daily urinary creatinine: absolute amount eliminated, 1.71 gram, varying from 1.71 to 0.53; gram per kilo. of body-weight, 0.015, varying from 0.023 to 0.010; creatinine coefficient (mg. creatinine nitrogen per kilo. of body-weight), 5.8, varying from 9.8 to 3.5. These figures are considerably smaller than the corresponding figures for normal men.

Some Observations on the Excretion of Creatinine by Women. MARY HULL (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2149—2151).—The urine of several women in normal health has been analyzed. The creatinine output was the chief factor considered, but nitrogen excretion in other forms was also determined, and results are tabulated. The creatinine varied between 14.1 and 14.97 mg. daily per kilo. of body-weight, the lowest value obtained in the case of a corpulent woman who lacked in physical exercise. These figures are very much lower than the corresponding values found for men by Long and Gorman (1912, ii. 961), which ranged from 21.5 to 27.8 mg. per kilo. of body-weight. It is suggested that this difference may be explained by the lower muscular structure and lower muscle tone of women.

Creatine and Creatinine in Starvation. G. GRAHAM and P. POULTON (*Proc. Physiol. Soc.*, 1914, liii—liv; *J. Physiol.*, 48, compare this vol., i, 228).—The results suggest that traces of creatine are excreted in starvation of the human subject which has lasted over three days. The excretion did not begin until forty-eight to fifty-eight hours after the last meal. Complications due to the excretion of acetoacetic acid were avoided. S. B. S.

Elimination of Phenolsulphonaphthalein in Acute and Chronic Tartrate Nephritis. FRANK P. UNDERHILL and NORMAN LEATHERWICK (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 39—56).—The rate of elimination of phenolsulphonaphthalein after ingestion may be greatly diminished during the acute stage of nephritis produced in rabbits by the subcutaneous injection of tartrates (*A.*, 1912, ii, 7). In the chronic condition, the excretion of the dye is more rapid, but does not reach the rapidity associated with the normal state. When excretion by the kidney is prevented, the dye is eliminated in the faeces through the bile.

The injection of tartrates does not reduce the excretion of nitrogenous substances in the urine. Although the rate of elimination is undoubtedly diminished, the total amount of waste material excreted is unchanged. A reduced rate of elimination does not necessarily mean that the kidney is not efficient.

It has been observed in these experiments that, contrary to what is previously noted (*loc. cit.*), the glomerulus has been injured as well as the renal tubules.

H. W. B.

Volatile Substances of Urine. WILLIAM M. DEHN and FRANK HORTMAN (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2118—2136).—The characteristic odour of urine cannot be attributed to any of the volatile substances hitherto detected in it, and it is evident that other compounds must be present. As this subject has not been investigated systematically, the present work was undertaken. Vapour-pressure determinations of samples of urine, from a few days to three weeks old, have shown that the variations of the vapour pressure with age are not large, but that in all cases the vapour pressures are lower than those of water at the same temperature.

The largest yields of volatile substances were obtained from urine by treating it with dilute sulphuric acid, leaving it for several days, and then distilling it. The distillates furnished products which were separated into four fractions, namely, acids, alcohols, bases, and neutral substances. Of the acids, the principal benzoic acid, formed by the hydrolysis of hippuric acid; the others comprise hydrogen sulphide, fatty acids up to heptanoic acid, possibly cyclohexanecarboxylic acid. The phenols include cresol, p-cresol, and some higher compounds. The chief bases are trimethylamine and indole; traces of these occur in fresh urine and in quantities in fermented urine. The neutral substances contribute most largely to the characteristic odour; indications were obtained of the presence of at least four new compounds, including p-cresol (see following abstract).

E. G.

Urinod, the Cause of the Characteristic Odour of Urine. WILLIAM M. DEHN and FRANK A. HARTMAN (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2136—2146. Compare preceding abstract).—The characteristic odour of urine has been found to be due to the presence of a substance, C_6H_8O , b. p. $108^\circ/28$ mm., a pale yellow oil, slightly soluble in water, and possessing a very penetrating, persistent, characteristic odour. This substance is readily volatile with steam, is oxidized by potassium permanganate and ammoniacal silver nitrate, is insoluble in cold, and reacts with Millon's reagent, but not with Fehling's solution or solution of alkali picrate. The dinitro-derivative, m. p. 78° , forms golden needles. Urinod reacts with semicarbazide to give a product, m. p. 254° , which crystallizes in hexagonal leaflets. When urinod is treated with bromine, several compounds are produced; one of these has m. p. about 110° , the other is not melted at 250° . The compound produced has the structure of cyclohexene-4-one, $CO<\begin{smallmatrix} CH_2-CH \\ | \quad | \\ CH_2-CH_2 \end{smallmatrix}>CH_2$.

quinonoid constitution $CO<\begin{smallmatrix} CH_2-CH_2 \\ | \quad | \\ CH_2-CH_2 \end{smallmatrix}>C$. Urinod does not exist in the free state in urine, but exists in a conjugated form, liberated by fermentation or by the action of dilute sulphuric acid. It is very toxic, and may have some connexion with uræmia.

The Isolation of the Substance in Butter Fat which Exerts a Stimulating Influence on Growth. E. V. MORGAN and MARGUERITE DAVIS (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 203—208. Compare Osborne and Mendel, A., 1913, i, 1128).—The growth-stimulating substance present in butter-fat has been isolated by saponifying the fat and extracting the soaps formed with a mixture of olive oil and ether. After removal of the ether, the olive oil was found to have acquired growth-stimulating properties which were previously absent. Rats which had ceased to grow on a diet of casein, dextrin, lactose, agar-agar, and salts, when addition of ordinary olive oil or of cotton-seed oil, began to grow again when the above olive-oil extract of butter soaps was added to the diet.

Pharmacological Action of Tetra-alkylammonium Compounds. I. The Action of Tetramethylammonium Chloride. C. R. MARSHALL (*Trans. Roy. Soc. Edin.*, 1914, 50, 17—44).—A detailed account of work published previously (*A.*, 1911, ii, 77).

Metabolism of an Isomeride of Xanthine and of its Isomerides of the Methylxanthines. SAMUEL GOLDBERG (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 83—104).—The author has studied the behaviour of various purine derivatives closely related to xanthine and uric acid when injected subcutaneously into rats. 2:8-Dioxytetrahydropurine, an isomeride of xanthine, is unchanged in the urine, whereas xanthine itself forms allantoin and uric acid. Uric acid, when injected subcutaneously, is eliminated chiefly as allantoin. 2:8-Dioxy-6-methyl-2:8-dioxy-

ethyl- and 2:8-dioxy-6:9-dimethyl-tetrahydropurines do not lead to an increase of urinary allantoin when injected subcutaneously into rabbits, which is in accordance with the view that excretion is effected only with great difficulty in the body. The above methylated purines do not produce diuresis.

H. W. B.

Toxicity of Sodium Tartrate. WILLIAM SALANT and C. S. FARRAR. *Amer. J. Physiol.*, 1914, 35, 239-264.—The toxic action of sodium tartrate has been observed in rabbits, cats, fowls, and man after intravenous and subcutaneous injection and administration by the mouth. Comparatively large doses, up to 4 grams per kilogram, may be given with the food to rabbits and fowls without causing any toxic effect. Larger quantities cause death often within a few hours. Sub-acute intoxication is produced by subcutaneous or intravenous injection of small doses, the effects being due to the kidney and symptoms of muscular and nervous debility.

The state of nutrition of the animal plays a considerable rôle determining the extent of intoxication produced by a given dose of sodium tartrate. Rabbits fed on carrots are much more resistant than those fed on oats and cabbage or on a milk diet. A fatal dose for fasting animals may be barely toxic for those in a well-fed state. Resistance seems to decrease with age. Sodium and Potassium Tartrates are found to be equally toxic.

H. W. B.

Chemistry of Vegetable Physiology and Agriculture.

Chemical Changes in Vegetable Organisms Undergoing Fermentation. MARIN MOLLIARD (*Compt. rend.*, 1914, 159, 1514).—Experiments were made on the changes in the sugars and organic compounds in the pericarp of *Cucurbita maxima* kept open and in closed tubes for periods of 30, 75, and 150 days. With the loss of total substance and of reducing sugars soluble in alcohol was greatest in the open tubes, whilst the non-reducing sugars soluble in alcohol first disappeared in the closed tube; the insoluble in alcohol remained almost the same in the open tubes and were only considerably reduced in quantity in the closed tubes during the last period of the experiment.

Whilst the total nitrogen remained about the same, the protein nitrogen decreased to rather more than half in the open tube and to less than half in the closed tube. The soluble nitrogen (especially ammonia) increased under both conditions, the increase being greater in the closed tube. The amino-nitrogen remained about the same in the open tube, and was doubled in the closed tube, the amide nitrogen disappeared altogether, first in the closed

N. H. J. M.

Relation of Bacterial Transformations of Soil Nitrogen to Nutrition of Citrous Plants. KARL P. KELLERMAN (*J. Agr. Research*, 1914, 2, 101—113).—The results of pot experiments which soils from typical orange-growing areas in California employed showed that an excess of nitrogen as nitrates produced the same symptoms of malnutrition as have been observed in areas throughout the orange belt in California. An examination of samples of soil from California showed that samples from the vicinity of deteriorating trees are richer in nitrates than those from the poor and good soils usually contain rather small amounts of insoluble nitrogen, the difference being in the rate of nitrification. In pot experiments it was found that a moderate nitrification is obtained by mixing a green crop with the soil. Large amounts of mature straw are to be avoided; small amounts of straw may, however, be applied with advantage to soils high in nitrates. Ground limestone, in addition, will probably be beneficial.

The Soluble Polysaccharides of Lower Fungi. II. Mycelial Galactan, a New Polysaccharide in *Aspergillus niger*. ARTHUR W. DOX and RAY E. NIXON (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 235—237. Compare this vol., i, 1038).—*Mycogalactan*, a polysaccharide is obtained from hot aqueous extracts of immature cultures of *Aspergillus niger* by treatment with alcohol. The dried material dissolves in cold water at the ordinary temperature, and the solution is immersed in a freezing mixture a transparent solid is formed. It gives a faint blue colour with iodine, which is due, however, to a trace of impurity. It has a sweet taste, but is produced by hydrolysis with dilute acid. H. W. B.

Formation of Hexone and Purine Bases in the Autolysis of *Glomerella*. HOWARD S. REED (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 257—262. Compare A., 1911, ii, 916).—Autolytic changes occurring in cultures of *Glomerella rufinaculans* result in the production of ammonia, histidine, lysine, xanthine, and hypoxanthine. An indication of the formation of amines could be detected in the dried fungous mycelium when incubated with gelatin solution. H. W. B.

β -p-Hydroxyphenylethylamine, a Pressor Compound in American Mistletoe. ALBERT C. CRAWFORD and WALTER WATANABE (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 303—304).—The base C₁₀H₁₃N, previously isolated by the authors (*Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc.*, 1913, 57, 865) from *Phoradendron flavescens* (mistletoe) has been identified by them as β -p-hydroxyphenylethylamine. H. W. B.

Proximate Analysis of Wheat. A. BARRIENI (*Compt. Rend.*, 1914, 159, 431—434).—Twenty kilos. of wheat were washed with distilled water, and the residue submitted first to maceration in cold water, then extraction with warm water (50—60°), and finally with boiling water. The residue from this treatment was se-

the portion passing through was treated with absolute alcohol, finely granular, homogeneous, white flour (*M*) being obtained by filtration. The portion remaining on the sieve was similarly treated with alcohol, filtered, and the filtrate kept. The aqueous extracts obtained with boiling and warm water were separately concentrated on a water-bath, and then alcohol was added, the precipitates, α and β , being filtered off. These two filtrates were mixed with those from *M*, and from the residue on the sieve, the alcohol was distilled off, and the aqueous residue (*C'*) shaken with chloroform. The filtrates from the first two treatments with water were also shaken with chloroform after concentration. The three separate chloroform extracts so obtained were mixed, and on distilling off the chloroform, the residue, after treatment first with water, and then with alcohol, yielded from the second solvent grams of a yellow colouring matter, which was probably a physiological transformation product of chlorophyll. It did not give the biuret reaction or the reaction for acetaldehyde, was soluble in water, but soluble in benzene, carbon disulphide, or in petroleum. The aqueous layer from *C* was treated with alcohol until a slight precipitate appeared, and then dialysed, and from the dialysed liquid monopotassium phosphate and potassium phosphate were obtained, but no monocalcium phosphate.

The flour *M*, together with the precipitates α and β , on extraction with ether, gave an oil, of which the major portion was insoluble in acetone, and contained no phosphorus, sulphur, or nitrogen, and the smaller, soluble portion, 8 grams, contained 0.1 gram of phosphorus, thus proving the non-existence of phosphorus in the wheat. By incinerating the flour *M*, and also the residue on the sieve, they were found to contain, respectively, 0.30 and 0.22% of insoluble salts, consisting chiefly of calcium sulphate and monocalcium phosphate, but no carbonates.

W. G.

The Organic Phosphoric Acid Compound of Wheat Bran.

R. J. ANDERSON (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 18, 425—440. Compare *ibid.*, 1912, ii, 1205).—The author shows that the organic phosphoric acid compounds obtained from wheat bran by the usual methods are contaminated with oxalates and inorganic phosphates. Purer preparations have now been obtained by precipitation from very dilute hydrochloric acid with alcohol. Several amorphous barium salts have been prepared; also an amorphous silver salt, which oxidizes very rapidly, and finally turns quite black. These compounds are quite different from the corresponding phytates. Evidence is adduced to show that wheat bran contains several distinct phosphoric acids differing so slightly from one another that their separation is very difficult.

H. W. B.

The Organic Phosphoric Acid Compound of Wheat Bran.

II. Inositol Monophosphate, a New Organic Phosphoric Acid Occurring in Wheat Bran. R. J. ANDERSON (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 18, 441—446. Compare preceding abstract).—Inositol monophosphate is prepared from the hydrochloric acid extract of

wheat bran by treatment with barium hydroxide, filtering off the precipitate, and, after removing excess of barium, concentrating in a vacuum and precipitating with alcohol. The substance was purified by means of its insoluble lead salt. After recrystallization from water, with the addition of alcohol, it was obtained as colourless, star-shaped aggregates of plates or prisms.

Inositol monophosphate, $C_6H_7(OH)_5 \cdot O \cdot PO(OH)_2$, when heated rapidly in a capillary tube, softens at 200° , and decomposes at $201\text{--}202^\circ$. When slowly heated, it softens at 188° , and melts at $190\text{--}191^\circ$ (decomp.). It is optically inactive. It is very soluble in water, giving an acid solution, but is insoluble in alcohol and the usual organic solvents. In the cold, no precipitate is formed with copper acetate, but on warming the solution, a bluish precipitate separates, which again dissolves completely on cooling. After hydrolysis with sulphuric acid or ammonia in a sealed tube, inositol and phosphoric acid were isolated and identified.

H. W. F.

Is Silica an Indispensable Constituent of Plant Food? MARSHALL LUNDIE (*N. African J. Sci.*, 9, No. 10; *Chem. News* 1914, 110, 200—202).—Water culture experiments with wheat supplied with the usual nutrients, but without silica. The leaves and stems contained, respectively, 1.212 and 0.447% silica.

Reference is made to a previous experiment, by Hahn, in which wheat grown under similar conditions was attacked by rust, the plant being overrun with the fungus in two days.

It is suggested that whilst silica is not an essential plant food for cereals, it may be of use in enabling the plants to resist attacks of fungoid growth. If this is correct, cereals grown on lime and basalt soils should suffer less from fungoid attacks than cereals grown on granite soils, climatic and weather conditions being the same (compare Hall and Morison, *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, 1906, B, 7, 455).

N. H. J. M.

[Influence of Zinc, Copper, Manganese and Cerium on the Growth of Wheat.] J. A. VOELCKER (*J. Roy. Agric. Soc. Eng.* 1913, 74, 411—427. Compare A., 1913, i, 1430).—Experiments with wheat grown in pots containing 40 lbs. of soil. Zinc was applied at the rate of 0.01, 0.02, and 0.03% in the forms phosphate, nitrate, and carbonate; copper (0.0025, 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05, and 0.1%) as sulphate and carbonate; manganese phosphate and carbonate, and cerium as oxide and sulphate (0.0025, and 0.005%).

As regards zinc, it was found that the larger amounts of zinc retarded germination, whilst the other salts were almost without effect on germination and in the earlier stages of growth. Late in June, a toxic effect was shown in the case of the larger amounts of carbonate and phosphate, and especially with nitrate, which caused the tops of the ears to be practically "blind." The final results showed a reduction in the yield of grain, except with 0.01%

zinc as nitrate, and, coincidentally, a more or less considerable gain of straw (except with the largest amount of nitrate); with 0.02% of zinc as nitrate the yield of straw was nearly doubled, the lowest gain, with 0.03% as carbonate, was 29%. Zinc sulphate and carbonate increased the root development, which was very stunted when nitrate was employed.

The conclusions drawn from the copper experiments are that stimulation occurs when the application is between 0.01 and 0.02%; larger amounts are toxic, and that smaller amounts are without effect. The greatest gain (straw 79 and grain 62%) was obtained with 0.02% of copper as carbonate. With the beneficial amounts of copper, especially with the sulphate, the roots were more extensive and fibrous as compared with untreated plants. The results obtained with manganese and cerium were negative, indications of stimulation or of toxicity being obtained.

N. H. J. M.

Occurrence of Hydrogen Cyanide in Millet and Guinea Corn. R. FURLONG (*Analyst*, 1914, 39, 430—432).—See this vol., ii, 821.

Occurrence of Methyl Alcohol in Maize Silage. E. B. HART and A. R. LAMB (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2114—2118).—Hart and Willaman (A., 1912, ii, 1205) have found that maize silage contains a small amount (about 0.05%) of methyl alcohol, whereas Ex and Neidig (A., 1913, i, 236) have stated that this alcohol is absent.

Several samples of maize silage have now been examined, and in all cases the presence of methyl alcohol was detected. As a number of different tests were employed for identifying the methyl alcohol, the possibility is precluded of the reactions being due to any other substance.

E. G.

Lucerne. V. Enzymes Present in Lucerne. C. A. JACOBSON and AUGUST HOLMES (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2170—2182).—In an earlier paper (A., 1913, i, 151) an account was given of the enzymes present in the seeds of lucerne (*Medicago sativa*). A tentative study has now been made of the enzymes in (a) the fresh stems and leaves, (b) the fresh stems and leaves, and (c) the fresh roots. The following enzymes have been detected. In (a), amylase and pectinase in large quantities, invertase and protease (peptolytic), and small quantities of amylase and peroxydase. In (b), emulsin and pectinase in large quantities, coagulase, peroxydase, and protease (peptolytic), and small quantities of amylase, amylase, and invertase. In (c), peroxydase in large quantity, coagulase, invertase and pectinase, and small quantities of amylase and emulsin.

E. G.

Experiments with Tomatoes. J. A. VOELCKER (*J. Roy. Agric. Soc.*, 1913, 74, 419—422).—Pot experiments with tomatoes in artificial soil consisting of rotted turf, sand, and limestone, and in its natural state and after being heated in a moist con-

dition at 80–100°. To some pots lithium phosphate (0.002% and 0.005%) was added, whilst others received magnesium in amounts that the total magnesium in the soil was raised from 0.792 to 0.792, 1.188 and 1.584 respectively. The highest amount of magnesia was practically equal to the lime present in the soil.

The effect of heating alone was to raise the yield of fruit. Addition of 0.002 and 0.005% of lithium to the unheated soil reduced the yields to 29 and 37% respectively of the amount obtained in soil alone. In the heated soils with lithium the yields were 71 and 14%. So that the toxic effect of the smaller amount of lithium was much reduced by heating the soil, whilst with the larger amount the toxic action was more marked in the heated soil.

As regards magnesia, the normal soil containing 1.188% showed an increase of 13% over the unmanured soil, whilst in those containing 0.792 and 1.584% the yields were respectively reduced to 89 and 12%. In the heated soils containing 0.792% of magnesia the yield was 31% over that of the unheated soil without added magnesia; with 1.584% of magnesia in the heated soil the yield was only 22%. Magnesium carbonate gave similar results to the oxide.

As compared with wheat, tomatoes are more affected by lithium and magnesium.

N. H. J. M.

Comparative Efficiency for Milk Production of the Nitrogen of Lucerne Hay and the Maize Grain. Effect of Diuretic on Milk Secretion. E. B. HART and G. C. HUMPHREY. *Can. J. J. WILLIAMS and A. R. LAMB* (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 127). Compare A., 1913, i, 151).—Further experiments on heifers show that the nitrogen of lucerne hay is as effective as that of the maize kernel for the formation of the milk proteins.

Lucerne hay has specific diuretic properties. The diuretic renal activity observed when it is employed as a constituent of the food is associated with a corresponding diminution in the flow of milk. The diuretic stimulus causes in some cases a shrinkage of volume of 2.5–2.75 kilos. of milk in a flow of 11.5 kilos. that it has not been ascertained whether salts or specific substances of organic nature in the hay are responsible for the diuretic action.

H. W. H.

Flavour of Roquefort Cheese. JAMES N. CURRIE. *J. Food Research*, 1914, 2, 1–14).—During the ripening of Roquefort cheese a considerable amount of the fat is hydrolysed, the chief factor in the hydrolysis being a water-soluble lipase produced by *Penicillium roqueforti*. The result is an accumulation of the free milk fat, both free and combined.

The peppery flavour of the cheese is due to hexoic, octoic and decioic acids, and their readily hydrolysable salts.

N. H. J. M.

Humic Acids. BR. TACKE, A. DENSCH, and TH. ARND. *Landw. Jahrb.*, 1914, 45, 195–265).—A reply to Gully (*Mitt. k. bay. Mus. kultur-anst.*, No. 5), in which the behaviour of peat towards trivalent

phosphate, sodium acetate and other salts, calcium oxalate, ammonium and ferric chlorides, and colloidal ferric hydroxide, the extraction by water of absorbed bases from *Sphagnum* and peat, the electric conductivity, the iodine reaction, the inversion of sucrose by peat, and the liberation of hydrogen in presence of iron and peat, are discussed. The results are opposed to the view that peat actions are due to colloid adsorption, and not to the presence of acids.

N. H. J. M.

Selective Adsorption (by Soils). E. G. PARKER (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 831-835).—Soils have not only the power of adsorbing dissolved salts from solution, but also of adsorbing one salt at a greater rate than the other; the nature of the surface of the constituents of a soil is such that the cation is adsorbed at a much greater rate than the anion. The presence of bases (sodium, magnesium, etc.) in solution, after contact of certain solutions with a soil, is not due to direct chemical reaction of the salt with the silicates of the soil, but to a secondary reaction of the free acid, resulting from the selective adsorption of the anion with the mineral constituents of the soil. Generally, the smaller the soil particles, the greater the selective adsorption of the cation. The adsorption of the cation increases with the concentration of the solution up to a certain point, and then remains practically constant. At very low concentrations the adsorption of the cation is complete. The presence of other substances may or may not affect selective adsorption by a soil.

W. P. S.

Occurrence of Aldehydes in Garden and Field Soils. ERIC SCHREINER and J. J. SKINNER (*J. Franklin Inst.*, 1914, 178, 343).—Experiments in which a large number of soils were treated with 3% sodium hydroxide, and the extracts, after being acidified with acid to remove the humic acids, examined for aldehydes. Physiological tests were made with the aldehydes by means of wheat seedlings, and when possible qualitative tests with ferric chloride and magenta reagent were made. The soils included sixteen garden and greenhouse soils which had failed to grow seed crops, and sixty field soils.

Of the unproductive garden soils, five contained aldehydes; out of thirty unproductive field soils, nine contained aldehydes; and of the same number of productive soils, three contained aldehydes.

Aldehydes were found in neutral, acid, and alkaline soils, mostly in garden soils. No relation seems to exist between the crop being grown or the type or texture of the soil and the presence of aldehydes. The presence of aldehyde is not confined to any locality, being found as far apart as New York and Mississippi.

The effect of the extracted aldehyde material on the growth of wheat varied from slightly, to very, harmful. Of the extracts in which aldehydes were not found, nineteen were without effect, sixteen were injurious, and fourteen beneficial or slightly so.

N. H. J. M.

Action of Manganese in Soil. J. J. SKINNER and H. SULLIVAN (*U.S. Dept. Agric., Bull. No. 43, 1914*).—The results of experiments in which wheat was grown in an unproductive loam, both without and with addition of manganese (as sulphate, nitrate, carbonate, and dioxide), showed a stimulative effect when the salt was applied in amounts from 5 to 100 million. On a productive loam, manganese salts were without effect.

In further experiments on the action of manganese on the growth of wheat in aqueous extracts of soils, and on the oxidising power of the plants, it was again found that manganese increased growth and oxidation in unproductive soils; in productive soils there was increased oxidation, whilst the growth was decreased.

Finally, a field experiment is described in which wheat, maize, cowpeas, and potatoes were manured with manganese sulphate (56 kilos. per hectare). It was found that manganese sulphate decreased both the crop and the oxidising power of the soil, which was an acid one.

The conclusion is drawn that the beneficial action of manganese may be due to increased oxidation, resulting in the destruction of injurious products in the soil, whilst the injurious action on the case of good soils may be due to excessive oxidation.

Acid soils, which are unfavourable to oxidation and reduction, do not seem to be benefited by manganese. N. H. J.

Sulphur as a Fertiliser. J. A. VOELCKER (*J. Roy. Agric. Soc. Engl., 1913, 74, 419*).—Applications of flowers of sulphur at a rate of 3.36, 6.72, and 13.44 kilos. per hectare, were without effect on mustard, rape, and clover grown in pots. The sulphur mixed with the last portion of the soil used to fill the pots.

N. H. J.

Influence of Sulphur on Soil Acidity. H. CLAY LINDSEY (*Eng. Chem., 1914, 6, 747—748*).—In order to ascertain the rate of oxidation of sulphur in soils, 100-gram portions of soil were mixed with 33 mg. of sulphur (equivalent to 1000 lb. of sulphur per acre-foot), and the moisture content was adjusted at 20%. The rate of oxidation of the soils increased gradually, as shown by the Jones acetate method, up to the eighth week, when all the sulphur was oxidised. Sulphur is oxidised more rapidly in heavy clay soils than in sandy loam soils (compare A., 1913, i, 811).

W. P.

General and Physical Chemistry.

Spectrum of the Oscillatory Discharge in Various Gases.
 BACCHETTI (*Nuovo Cim.*, 1914, [vi], 7, i, 390—410).—The author has investigated the spectra of the oscillatory discharge between magnesium electrodes in hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and carbon dioxide. The first part of the discharge consists of lines of the gas and of the metal of high and low excitation; in the second part, the metallic lines of low excitation remain, and are accompanied by the bands of the gas and of the compounds of the latter with the metal. The bands start from the positive electrode and cease at a distance from the negative one, whilst the lines traverse the whole space between the electrodes, and the bands are not found in the regions bordering on the electrodes. The first phase of the oscillatory discharge presents, among those complex phenomena known as a spark; it opens the gas, ionising the gas, carries with it occasional particles of the metal, and heats the electrodes to redness, being then replaced by the second phase of the discharge, namely, the arc. In the latter phase, there is a localisation of the seat of emission of the various series of lines, the principal series originating in a stratum surrounding the electrodes during this second part of the discharge depends on the thermal conductivity of the surrounding medium; in hydrogen, the heating does not last so long as in nitrogen, oxygen, and carbon dioxide, whilst the discharge is extinguished sooner. The change in potential at the electrodes falls off in the adjacent medium for equal magnitudes of the auto induction, the difference of potential at the electrode is greater in oxygen than in nitrogen, and least in hydrogen. The luminous emission is subjected to a variation of the gas in which the discharge takes place, since the medium modifies to some extent both the distribution of the electric field between the electrodes and the temperature of the gas.

T. H. P.

Spark Spectrum of Nickel under Moderate Pressures.
 BURNHAM (*Phil. Trans.*, 1914, [A], 214, 359—371).—The influence of pressure on the spark spectrum of nickel has been examined at pressures up to eleven atmospheres. One of the most striking effects of the increase of pressure is the change in the character of the lines, which, according to the differences in behaviour, may be divided into five groups. These groups contain, respectively, (1) lines which show symmetrical reversion; (2) lines which reverse asymmetrically; (3) lines which remain bright and sharp; (4) lines which remain bright, but are symmetrically broadened; (5) lines which are unsymmetrically broadened towards the red. The general effect of an increase of pressure on the relative intensities of the lines is as follows:

4. C.V. ii

ties of the lines is similar to that produced by the self-induction in a spark circuit.

All nickel lines are displaced towards the red, the average shift being the same for lines of the first and second groups, while shifts are larger for unreversed lines, and are greatest for which broaden unsymmetrically towards the red.

The observations point to the existence of two series of lines, $\lambda 3514.14$ and $\lambda 3608.98$, the wave-lengths of which are practically identical with those of nickel arc lines.

The Infra-Red Absorption Bands of Hæmoglobin. HARTRIDGE and A. V. HILL (*Proc. physiol. Soc.*, 1914, *Proc. Physiol.*, 48).—The absorption spectrum of reduced oxyhaemoglobin was measured by means of a very sensitive photometer. It was found that the absorption by hæmoglobin is greatest, by oxyhæmoglobin less, and by the carbonates still. The differences are sufficiently great for it to be possible to employ the method for determining the amounts of hæmoglobin present in a given solution.

Simple and Complex Rotatory Dispersion. T. M. LOWRY and T. W. DICKSON (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 103—106). Compare P., 1913, 29, 185). All cases of rotatory dispersion may be represented by Drude's formula. Simple rotatory dispersion may be expressed by the equation $\alpha = \frac{A}{\lambda^2 - \lambda_0^2}$, while complex rotatory dispersion requires two or more terms, which may be negative. Anomalous dispersion is probably due in many instances to dynamic isomerism.

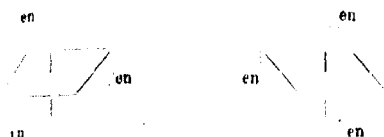
An Enclosed Cadmium Arc for Use with the Polarimeter. T. MARTIN LOWRY and H. H. ABRAM (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 10, 103—106).—For substances with simple rotatory dispersion (preceding abstract), measurements with light of two wave-lengths, such as the green and violet mercury lines, are sufficient to determine the form of the dispersion curve. For more complex dispersion a cadmium arc may be used. The arc passes between water-cooled electrodes of solid cadmium in a vessel exhausted by a Gaede pump. When the vacuum is good, the arc will not start itself, but usually the passage of a spark from lead to cadmium is necessary. There is a silica bridge between the electrodes. The tube has two quartz windows.

α - and β -Methylglucoside show simple rotatory dispersion, the ratios for the violet and green mercury lines being the same as for the green and red cadmium lines.

The Constitution of Liquid Mixtures and Their Rotatory Power. A. COTTON (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 21—24). The determination of the optical rotatory power and of the refractive index and birefringence of the same mixture of liquids is proposed as a means of determining whether complexes are present.

Rotatory Power of Mixed Crystals. $\text{NaClO}_3\text{-AgClO}_3$, see **FRUTTER** (*Atti R. Accad. Sci. Torino*, 1914, 49, 1127-1134). Compare **REIGERS**, A., 1890, 1208; **FOOTE**, A., 1902, ii, 453).—The composition of mixed crystals of sodium and silver chlorates varies slightly among crystals from one and the same crystallisation, and from sector to sector of an individual crystal. The crystals show various optical anomalies, the double refraction of two axes increasing with the content of silver chlorate. The specific heats have been measured, and are found to be in accord with **DAVY**'s additive law. Monometric silver chlorate has an approximately constant specific gravity of about 4.20 in mixed salts of all compositions, and its specific rotation is 12.65° , which is about four times that of sodium chlorate. T. H. P.

Optical Activity of Chemical Compounds without Chiral Centres. A. **WERNER** (*Compt. rend.*, 1914, 159, 426-429).—The author has prepared an optically active compound containing no chiral centres, but similar in composition to the cobalt triethylenediamine complex, $[\text{Co}(\text{en})_3]\text{X}_3$, en representing $\text{NH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-NH}_2$. In place of a molecule of ethylenediamine there is in the new compounds a cyclic molecular complex $[(\text{OH})_2\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_4]\text{X}$, their asymmetric character being represented by



salts prepared were the bromides, having the composition $[(\text{OH})_2\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_4]\text{Br}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, the active forms being prepared by resolution from their π -bromocamphorsulphonates with sodium hydroxide. The active *d*-salt prepared in this way crystallises in greyish-brown plates and is very soluble. It has $[\alpha]_D^{20}$ varying from +4000 to 45000, its rotatory power diminishing rapidly in aqueous solution, the salt becoming inactive after two hours.

W. G.

Existence of Racemic Tartaric Acid in Solution. see **WILSON** (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 80-83). Compare A., 1914, 10, 147).—When *d*- and *l*-tartaric acids are mixed in unequal proportions in solution, the measured rotatory dispersions are those that would be expected if the two acids remained uncombined. Mixtures of *d*-tartaric acid and racemic acid also behave in solution as if the latter compound were dissociated into its components.

C. H. D.

Rotatory Power of Tartaric Acid. G. **BAUHAT** (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 84-90).—The rotatory power of fused and crystallised tartaric acid has been observed at temperatures from -100° to $+100^\circ$, and for light of different wave-lengths. The dispersion is normal at 180° , but becomes anomalous below 100° .

C. A. D.

The dispersion curves are plotted together with those determined by Arndtsen (*Ann. Chem. Phys.*, 1858, [iii], 54, 463) for the solutions of various concentrations, and exhibit a complete clarity. The only hypothesis which will account for the phenomenon is that of the presence of two compounds of opposite rotatory power, in proportions varying with the temperature and concentration, in both the solutions and the undercooled acid, one of these compounds being ordinary tartaric acid, the other, it may be a complex aggregate.

Cryoscopic determinations in water by acetic acid show that quantity of the polymeride cannot much exceed 25 per cent. They have a rotatory power of from -80° to -200° . This is comparable with the rotatory power of solid rubidium tartarate.

C. H. S.

Discovery of the Sensitiveness of Silver Salts to Light.
ICILIO GUARISCHI (*Atti R. Accad. Sci. Torino*, 1914, 49, 1083-1090). The author regards Homborg's observation in 1694 (comp. this vol., ii, 234) as of little importance, since it refers to silver nitrate in contact with organic matter, which accelerates the decomposition of the silver salt, and since also it was known, earlier, before the time of Boyle (1663), that silver salts are darkened in the light or in the air. Of far greater importance for the development of photography were the investigations of Lavoisier (1727), and particularly those of Becqueri (1757) and Schlegel (1784). The invention of the dark chamber is due to G. B. Porta (1540-1615).

T. H.

Radium Constants on the International Standard.
ERNEST RUTHERFORD (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 320-337). Recalculation of the radioactive magnitudes in the paper "Radioactive Substances and their Radiations" is given on the basis of the International Standard. The equilibrium ratio of radium to uranium is now 3.23×10^{-7} , the yearly production of helium per gram of radium, calculated 163, found 164; the total observed heating effect per gram of radium in equilibrium with its first four products is 134.7 calories per hour, instead of 125; radium, 25.1; emanation, 28.6; radium-A, 30.5; -B and -C, 50.5; the equilibrium volume of emanation per gram of radium calculated, 0.62, found 0.63 cu. mm.; number of α -particles emitted per second per gram of radium, itself, 3.57×10^{10} , in equilibrium with first four products, 14.3×10^{10} ; the total positive charge in the latter case, 33.2 E.S.U. , or $1.11 \times 10^{-9} \text{ E.M.F.}$; the negative charge carried by the β -particles of radium-B and -C, 18.3 E.S.U. ; the total saturation current due to α -rays from radium in equilibrium with its first four products, itself, $2.89 \times 10^6 \text{ E.S.U.}$, and with emanation, 9.94×10^6 .

With regard to the heating effect of the emanation calculated from the kinetic energy of the α -particles emitted, it is 7% lower than the observed, the following explanation is suggested. The energy of the electronic distribution of an emanation

expected to increase with increase of the nuclear charge, or the mass of the α -particle may be expected to be accompanied by loss of the energy of the electronic distribution, and the effect of the β -particle by the opposite effect. The relative heat effect of radium-*B* and *C'*, as compared with that of the radium and radium-*A*, is less than the calculated, in agreement with this view, since β -rays as well as α rays result in the change of radium-*B* and *C'*. It is calculated that of the total heat effect of the α -ray changes, some 90% is due to the kinetic energy of α -particle expelled and 10% to loss of internal atomic energy in manner indicated.

For the value for $nE = 1.11 \times 10^{-9} E.M.U.$, where n is the number of α particles per gram per sec. of radium itself, and E is the energy each particle carries, the half-period of radium on the International Standard is 1690 years. The experimental determinations give 2000 years (Boltwood), 1800 years (Keetman), 1730 years (Stefan Meyer).

F. S.

α Mass and Velocities of α -Particles from Radioactive

stances. SIR E. RUTHERFORD and H. ROBINSON (*Phil. Mag.*, [5], 28, 552—572).—From the mean of recent determinations of atomic weight of helium, 3.998, and the value of e/m for the gas atom, 9570, the value of e/m for the α -particle, or helium carrying two positive charges, should be 4826, whereas the experimental value is 5070. To test as thoroughly as possible whether the value of e/m for a high-speed positive particle is the same as the value from electrochemical data, experiments have been made, to an accuracy of $\frac{1}{4}\%$, on the value of e/m of the α -particle, by measuring the deflexions of a narrow pencil of α -rays known by the photographic method, in very carefully determined electromagnetic and electrostatic fields. The final results for the value of e/m of the α -particles of radium emanation, radium-*A*, and radium-*C'*, lay between 4813 and 4826, the mean value being 4819, which agrees with the calculated result within the limits of experimental error.

The initial value of the velocity of the α -particles of radium-*A* is 1.922×10^9 cm. per second, about 7% lower than the previously accepted value. On the new data, the development of the α -particle into helium and its products is 7% less than the observed, and part of the effect is probably due to other sources (see preceding section).

A search was made for atoms differing from the α -particle in mass or charge, and the conclusion is drawn that if any such atoms exist their number is certainly less than 1 in 10,000 of the number of α -particles.

F. S.

Relation between the β - and γ -Ray Spectra. SIR ERNEST

RUTHERFORD (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 305—319).—Previous discussions on the β - and γ -rays are discussed from the point of view of the general problem of radiation, and tentative conclusions are drawn. The results of Chadwick (this vol., ii, 408) show that even

the intense lines in the magnetic spectrum of radium-B represent a small fraction only of the total β -rays emitted. From this it seems that β -ray magnetic spectra are probably continuous, with a superimposed line spectrum. The continuous spectrum is ascribed to the escaping β -particle suffering in its escape from the nucleus of the atom several collisions of the ordinary kind with the electrons in the outer electronic distribution of the atom. In addition, it is supposed that certain well-defined regions of a part of the atom are set into definite vibration, whence "characteristic" γ -radiations of the atom arise and one or more groups of β -rays of definite speed are expelled, which give the spectrum observed. The conclusion that characteristic γ -rays are a line spectrum of β -rays must accompany one another is put out by the evidence. Radium-E, which gives only a continuous β -ray spectrum, gives little or no γ -radiation.

To explain their absence in such particular cases, the conclusion is drawn that the direction of expulsion of the β -particle from the nucleus with regard to the structure of the atom must be definite and be the same for all the atoms. Thus if this direction lies through one of the vibrating regions of the atom before expelled, neither γ -radiation nor "line" β -radiation is emitted. The same explanation covers the remarkable anomalies exhibited in the types and relative intensities of γ -rays emitted by the various radio-elements. In the bombardment of atoms by cathode rays of sufficient speed, however, the rays enter the atoms in all directions and all types of characteristic X -rays have a chance of being excited.

Accepting Planck's relation between the frequency and energy of radiation and his values for the numerical constant and for the electronic charge, the experimental evidence is reviewed from the point of view differing from that before propounded. The probable effect of the ejection of the β -particle from the nucleus on the excitation of γ -rays at one vibrating region of frequency ν_1 is that the energy of these γ -rays suffers partial or complete conversion into energy of "line" β -radiation in the same region or into another vibrating region of frequency ν_2 . The energy of the β -particle in these cases will be either $p h \nu_1$ or $p h \nu_1 - q h \nu_2$, where p and q are integers and h is Planck's constant. On comparing the energies of the lines in the β -ray spectrum of radium-B and γ -rays with the frequency of the γ -rays, numerous close agreements are observed which can hardly be accidental. Thus the unit of energy 0.4284×10^{13} ergs, which enters as an integral multiple in the Nos. 1 to 29 (A., 1913, ii, 899) of the β -ray spectrum of radium-B, is, within the experimental error, one-third of 1.285×10^{13} ergs, the energy of one of the strong lines of the γ -ray spectrum of radium reflected from rock-salt at an angle of 190° , as deduced by Planck's relation. Of twelve strong lines of the β -ray spectrum, the energies of six are multiples of 1.285×10^{13} ergs, and thirteen (including the first six) are multiples of another unit, 0.74×10^{13} ergs, which corresponds with the line reflected by rock-salt at 174° in the γ -ray spectrum of radium-B and -C, and is believed to be a

one component belonging to each radio-element. The two lines not so included in the β -ray spectrum correspond with one and ten times a third unit, 1.75×10^{15} , which again corresponds with the γ -ray line of shortest wavelength yet observed, that reflected from rock-salt at an angle of 0.43° . With regard to the β -ray spectrum of radium *B*, the evidence is rather less conclusive, on account of the large number of lines in the β -ray spectrum. Two of the strong lines are expressed as small multiples of 0.870×10^{15} , to be expected of the γ ray at angles of 1.24° . But the γ -ray lines reflected at 10° and 12° do not appear to be responsible for any of the β rays. Finally, some as yet untested deductions on the relation between the spectra of β -rays excited by characteristic *X* rays and the spectra of the latter are drawn.

F. S.

Number of Ions Produced by the β - and γ Radiations of Radium. H. G. J. MOSLEY and H. ROBINSON (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, **28**, 327-337).—The total number, *N*, of pairs of ions produced by the γ -rays of radium *B* and *C'* in equilibrium with α rays of radium is determined to be 1.22×10^{15} , whereas the α rays produce 8.46×10^{15} . The ratio between these quantities is 1:6.94, whereas the heating effects observed are 6.4 and 4.2 per cent. per hour. In the following table the values of *N*, the calculated heating effect, and the average energy emitted, per atom of radium, are given for the β and γ rays of radium *B* and *C'*:

	<i>N</i> (10^{15})	Heating effect (cal. per hour)	Average energy per atom ($\times 10^{-6}$ erg.)
Fast β rays of radium <i>B</i>	0.325	1.71	0.55
Slow β rays of radium <i>C'</i>	0.64	3.35	1.09
Fast β rays of radium <i>B</i>	0.084	0.44	0.14
Slow β rays of radium <i>C'</i>	1.034	5.96	1.91
Fast β and γ rays of radium <i>B</i> ..	0.41	2.15	0.70
Slow β and γ rays of radium <i>C'</i> ..	1.774	9.3	3.02

In Rutherford's original theory, the figures in the last two lines of the column should be the energy of the β -particle which has been emitted without exciting γ -radiation. In the case of radium *C'*, however, a few β particles with energy as high as 3.9×10^{-6} erg. have been observed. In the case of radium *B* the fastest β -ray observed has the energy 0.6×10^{-6} erg.

F. S.

Secondary γ Radiation. D. C. H. FLORANCE (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, **28**, 363-367. Compare this vol., ii, 160). Using equal masses and area of thin radiators, carbon, aluminium, copper, zinc, tin, lead, the amount of γ -radiation scattered by the radiator is the least of all after it has passed through 0.084 cm. of lead. After passing through 0.202 cm. of aluminium the lead radiator produced more scattered radiation than the others. This extra radiation from lead is probably a characteristic radiation. The scattering is found to be simply proportional to the number of electrons in the radiator or to the weight of the atom, an electron in a light

aluminium atom scattering to the same extent as one atom of lead. The loss of energy by the γ -ray to the atom increases with the angle of scattering, and the penetrating power of the scattered radiation depends essentially on the angle of scattering and not on the material of the radiator.

The Distribution of Energy in the Different Types of Rays Emitted from Certain Radioactive Substances.

JADWIGA SZMIDT (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 527-539).—Determination of the total number of ions each type of ray produces in air or other gases gives the ratio of the energies of different types if it is assumed that the same proportion of energy of different rays is spent in ionisation and that the energy required to produce an ion is the same for γ -rays of different penetrating power. To test the second point, the total ionisation in various gases by γ -rays of different hardness was determined. For the soft γ -rays of radium-*D* the ionisation produced in sulphur dioxide, carbon dioxide, and air is proportional to the absorption in these gases, but in the case of hydrogen sulphide greater ionisation is produced, as is the case also with *X*-rays. In the case of the hard γ -rays from radium-*B* and radium-*C'*, the ionisation is proportional to the absorption.

Of the total γ -ray energy of radium-*D*, the hard γ -rays possess between 17 and 35%. In the γ -rays of radium-*B* and *C*, the energies of the soft rays of radium-*B*, the hard rays of radium-*B*, and the rays of radium-*C'* are estimated as in the ratio 1:45:639.

Ordinals or Atomic Numbers? A. VAN DEN BROEK (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 630-632).—The author criticises Rydberg's explanation (this vol., ii, 599) that the frequencies of the *X*-rays are related to the "ordinals" which are two units higher than atomic numbers. The hypothesis that the frequencies are related to the atomic numbers affords a more satisfactory account of experimental results, and also affords a basis for the explanation of observations on the scattering of α -particles and of Röntgen

H. M. D.

The Absorption Coefficients of *X*-Rays. W. H. BRAGG and S. E. PEIRCE (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 626-630).—The method of determining the wave-lengths of *X*-rays by reflection from crystal surfaces has made it possible to determine the ratio between wave-length and absorption coefficient. The rays examined are those emitted by anti-cathodes of silver, palladium and rhodium, each of which yields a spectrum consisting of two well-defined intense lines. Each wave-length was determined by reflection from a rock-salt crystal, and its absorption coefficient in various metals determined. Barkla's rule that the ratio of absorption coefficients is independent of the wave-length of the rays is confirmed over a wide range.

The results suggest that the absorption coefficient of any

value of atomic number N is equal to $C\lambda^4$, where C has constant value over prescribed ranges. The constant changes its value suddenly in passing through the wave-lengths of the Rh-Pd-Ag group examined. According to Darwin, the absorption coefficient is as the 5.2 power of the wave-length of the rays absorbed, and this, combined with the preceding, gives the very general rule for the atomic absorption coefficient, defined as the proportion of the energy of the X-ray pencil which is absorbed on crossing a space on which lies one atom to every square centimetre, is $1.6 \times 10^{-10} \lambda^4$, where λ is wave-length of the X-ray. C is equal to 1.3×10^{-10} for all values of N between 13 (Al) and 46 (Pd), and to 2.5×10^{-10} for all greater values. F. S.

Effect of X-Rays on the Action of Certain Enzymes. A. MARSH (*Amer. J. Physiol.*, 1914, 35, 224—238).—The author makes experiments which indicate that a short exposure of amyl diastase, and other enzymes to X-rays increases the activity, and the exposure be prolonged for more than five minutes the effect is to diminish the activity of the enzyme. Between these extremes there lies a point at which the radiation is ineffective. Accelerating and the inhibiting effects are slight, but seem to be finite. H. W. B.

Experiments on the Active Deposit of Radium. E. M. HARRISON (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 417; *Amer. J. Sci.*, 1914, [iv], 12, 301. Compare A., 1913, ii, 905). In a series of experiments on the distribution of the active deposit from radium emanation in ethyl ether, it was found that neither a positive nor negative static charge exerts any appreciable effect, the proportion reaching the gas electrode of a cylindrical vessel being 10%. Hence the gases of active deposit at the end of their recoil paths in other uncharged, the amount reaching the electrodes arriving there by diffusion.

When the emanation in relatively large quantity is mixed with the active deposit particles in the gas form large aggregates which acquire positive and negative charges from the ions present in the gas. The formation of these aggregates appears to cease rapidly when the concentration of the emanation and the degree of ionisation it produces sink below a certain value. Under these conditions, the particles in the gas are practically all neutral, and pass to the electrodes through simple diffusion, the diffusion coefficient in dry air at atmospheric pressure and about 20° being approximately $0.045 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ sec}^{-1}$. F. S.

The Distribution of the Active Deposit of Radium in Electric Fields. H. P. WALMSLEY (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 1—55). Compare A., 1913, ii, 905).—In the case of the radium active deposit, some 5 to 10% is deposited on the anode, and this has been further investigated. This part is ascribed to the action of unchanged particles of radium A, and no negatively charged particles exist. F. S.

Origin of the Electron Emission from Glowing Solids. FRANK HORTON (*Phil. Trans.*, 1914, [A], 214, 277—294).—Experiments on the electron emission from Nernst filaments have been made with the object of throwing further light on the mechanism of the emissive effect and of testing the "chemical action" theory of the working of an oxide electrode. A comparison was made of the electron emission from a filament (1) when heated by a direct current and by alternating currents; (2) when heated by the passage of current and heated without conducting the heating current; (3) heated in the ordinary manner and compared with the emission of the same material when heated on platinum. These experiments indicate that the electron emission is not connected directly or indirectly with the electrolysis which accompanies the passage of the current. At a given temperature, the emission is the same whether the current through the filament is large or small. From this it may be inferred that the action of a glow cathode is not due to the recombination of electrolytic products of calcium and oxygen, as has been suggested.

No definite conclusion can be drawn from the results as to whether the electron emission is purely a thermal effect or due in some way to chemical action. The fact that the emission increases when a chemically active gas is allowed to enter the charge tube may or may not be due to chemical action. It is probable that the cause of the increased activity is different in different cases.

Radium : Uranium Ratio in Carnotites. S. C. LEE and C. F. WHITTEMORE (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2066—2074). The samples of carnotite used in this investigation are representative of the principal occurrences in Colorado and Utah, and containing from 1.5% to 33% of U_3O_8 , were included. Samples representing large quantities of ore (from a few hundred pounds to several tons) gave a ratio Ra : U identical with that of pitchblende, 3.33×10^{-2} . Samples from small quantities of ore exhibited abnormal ratios, ranging from 2.48×10^{-2} to 4.1×10^{-2} . These abnormal ratios are probably due to a transport of radium within a bed of ore, producing local differences which are neutralised when large quantities of ore are mixed.

Carnotite has a high emanating power, varying from 100 to 1000. In order to obtain concordant results by Boltwood's method, it was found desirable to make the determination of emanating power and the emanation liberated by solution complementary to each other by determining the emanation liberated by solution on the same sample from which the emanating power had just been determined. Radium can be more easily determined by the emanation method in one operation, either by solution or by ignition from tubes in which it has been sealed for a month to attain equilibrium.

The Electrical Resistance and Critical Ranges of Pure Iron. G. K. BURGESS and I. N. KELLBERG (*J. Washington Acad. Sci.*, 1914, 4, 436—440).—The variation of the resistance of pure iron

temperature has been examined between 0° and 950° . The method employed consisted in comparing the resistances of iron and platinum wires, which were wound on the same support and placed in an exhausted quartz tube heated in an electric furnace. With the aid of a drum-chronograph, the times at which the resistances were measured could be accurately recorded, the resistance of a platinum wire affording a measure of the temperature of the iron wire at any moment.

The results show that the resistance of iron increases at a gradually increasing rate until the neighbourhood of the first critical region (A_1) is reached. This region is characterised by a point of inflection on the resistance temperature curve at 757° . As the temperature is further increased, there is an abrupt fall in the resistance at about 894° , and the reverse change occurs at approximately the same temperature when the temperature is allowed to fall.

This second critical region (A_2) extends over an interval of 100° . Whilst the change A_2 is reversible and does not appear to be associated with any alteration in crystalline structure, the change seems to be progressive and (thermo-electrically) non-reversible, and furthermore it is associated with a change in crystalline form.

H. M. D.

Measurement of Oxidation Potentials at Mercury Electrodes. I. The Stannic-Stannous Potential. GEORGE SHANNON and EDWARD PAYSON BARTLETT (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2030-2040).—The work of earlier observers on the stannic-stannous potential has not given concordant results, and the present investigation has therefore been carried out.

It has been found that mercury is superior to platinum for use in measuring oxidation potentials of low intensity as results are obtained more rapidly and are less liable to be vitiated by irregularities in surface energy of the electrode or by the presence of traces of oxygen.

The potentials of mixtures of stannic and stannous chlorides containing $\frac{1}{2}$ gram-atom of tin per litre in hydrochloric acid of three different concentrations have been measured at mercury electrodes at 25° . Some measurements were also made of mixtures containing $\frac{1}{2}$ gram-atom of tin per litre. The potential has been found to be nearly independent of the concentration, but is very slightly more electro-negative in the more dilute solutions.

In order to ascertain the values which should be observed if acid could be eliminated without the appearance of hydrolysis, the potentials for selected values of the concentration ratio have been plotted against the several concentrations of acid employed and extrapolated to zero concentration of acid; the graphs thus obtained are nearly straight lines. Up to two gram-mols. of hydrochloric acid per litre the potentials are expressed accurately by the formula $E = 0.425 + 0.030 \log \text{Sn}^{IV}/\text{Sn}^{II} - 0.011 \times \text{concentration of hydrochloric acid}$, provided that sufficient acid is added to prevent hydrolysis.

E. G.

Diffusion and Membrane Potentials. E. B. R. PEARSON (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 160—166).—The membrane potential has been determined when two solutions of sodium benzoate of different concentrations, are separated by parchment. Calomel electrodes are used. The potentials observed are considerably lower than the ordinary diffusion potentials. The effect appears to be to decrease the mobility of the anion as compared with that of the cation, but the membrane is never completely impermeable to the anion. C. H. L.

Studies on a New Kind of E.M.F. I. REINHARD BEUTNER (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2040—2045).—The E.M.F. of galvanic cells composed of insoluble inorganic liquids and aqueous solutions (A., 1913, ii, 469) is discussed, and it is shown that the change of the E.M.F. of such systems must be due to the change of potential difference located at the junction of the organic and the aqueous solution. The observations on cells containing salicylaldehyde as a middle conductor afford an imitation of the electrode-like potential differences between certain living tissue and aqueous solutions (Loeb and Beutner, A., 1912, ii, 693). It is shown that the potential difference at the junction of these phases does not depend on ionic mobility as does the potential difference between miscible solutions, but must have properties characteristic of potentials at metallic electrodes. E. G.

Studies on a New Kind of E.M.F. II. Cell Arrangement of Aqueous and Nitrobenzene Solutions Containing a Common Ion in Both Phases. REINHARD BEUTNER (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2045—2059).—In the preceding paper, reference has been made to the existence of interphase potential differences with properties resembling electrode potentials.

The E.M.F. of cells consisting of aqueous and nitrobenzene solutions has now been measured. The solutions in contact with each other always contain one common ion, and the potential difference at the nitrobenzene-water interphase can therefore be easily calculated from the thermodynamic formula. It is proved that the E.M.F. of cells which consist of two nitrobenzene solutions in contact with each other between two identical aqueous solutions is located at the phase junctions, and not at the junction of the two nitrobenzene solutions.

Ostwald has suggested that a selective ionic permeability of membranes is the cause of physiological currents. According to this hypothesis, the E.M.F. produced by a water-immiscible layer is located at the phase-junction but inside the layer or membrane. This theory does not accord with the experimental results obtained in the present investigation. E. G.

Passivity of Metals. HORACE G. BYERS and SETH C. LARSEN (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2004—2011).—It has been shown in earlier work (Byers, A., 1908, ii, 1026; Byers and Darrin, A., 1910, ii, 579; Byers and Morgan, A., 1911, ii, 1057; Byers and Larsen,

(1913, ii, 552) that the establishment of the passive state in iron as an anode is affected by the character and condition of the electrolyte, the temperature, the current density, the direction of passage of the current, and the character of movement of the electrolyte. Experiments are now described which indicate another factor must be added to these, namely, the concentration of the dissolved oxygen about the anode, and that this is apparently the determining factor. When all these factors are taken into account, constant results can be obtained with respect to the time required to render iron passive with a given current in acetic acid, and a critical current density in nitric acid can be determined.

Passivity, when not caused by a visible film of oxygen, is considered to be due to the fact that the rate of ionisation of certain metals is not sufficient to carry a current of more than a certain intensity. When such current density is exceeded, oxygen electrodes, consisting of occluded oxygen, are formed in electrolytes consisting of oxygen compounds. Non-anodic passivity is also regarded as due to occlusion of oxygen and consequent protection of the metal from attack.

E. G.

Electrodeposition of Cadmium. I. and II. FRANK C. MATHERS and HOW M. MARBLE (*Trans. Amer. Electrochem. Soc.*, 1914, 25, 318, 319-333).—I. A review of the work done in the refining and commercial plating of cadmium. Reference is made to work done with (1) sulphate solutions, (2) nitrate solutions, (3) haloid solutions, (4) silicofluoride solutions, (5) cyanide solutions, (6) phosphate solutions, (7) ammoniacal solutions, (8) oxalate solutions, (9) acetate, formate, lactate, and succinate solutions, and (10) tartrate solutions.

II. A large number of experiments have been carried out with a view to determining which salts of cadmium are best suited to giving smooth, adherent, and non-crystalline deposits. Baths were made up of various cadmium salts containing 4% of cadmium, and electrolysed between cadmium electrodes with a cathode current density of 0.4 amp. per 100 sq. cm.; the solutions were stirred at intervals. The deposits obtained from ammoniacal and alkaline nitrate baths were hopelessly spongy. The deposits from solutions of acetate, bromide, iodide, sulphate, phosphate, and chloride were rough and crystalline. A number of experiments are described with nitrate baths to which various other substances had been added, for example, a bath containing 4% of cadmium as chloride, 10% of sodium chloride, 5% of hydrochloric acid, and 0.1% of peptone gave a fairly smooth, finely crystalline deposit. A bath of the same composition as the foregoing with the addition of 10% of ferric chloride gave a much better deposit. Manganese, aluminium or sodium chlorides did not improve the deposit in the same way as iron did. The deposits obtained with solutions of bromide and iodide were crystalline and rough. Solutions of fluoride, silicofluoride, borofluoride, and perchlorate containing 4% of cadmium and 0.5-5.0% of the free acid and 0.2 gram of peptone, glue, or

phloridzin or 4 drops of oil of cloves gave excellent deposits. In some cases spongy places, rough projections, and spots were formed, but these are attributed to the presence of particles of anode slimes, since they were not formed when the anode was amalgamated. It is shown that the same substances, oil of cloves, glue, peptone, and phloridzin, which have been previously used to give quite good deposits in the case of lead, also produced good deposits in the case of cadmium, although it was generally more difficult to obtain good deposits with cadmium than with lead.

J. F. S.

A Thermo-regulator for Thermostats at Temperatures Very Close to Room Temperature. CHARLES W. R. PEARCE (*J. Soc. Chem. Ind.*, 1914, 33, 899-900).—A regulator is described for use with thermostats at temperatures either a few degrees below or above atmospheric temperature. The regulator consists of a usual toluene filled vessel, which is fitted at the top with two tubes at different levels; the top one leads into the thermostat and the lower one into the sink, and both serve to conduct a stream of ice-cold water. The top of the regulator is closed by a cork, and carries a glass tube, by means of which ice-cold water enters the regulator, and a copper wire which terminates at the upper end of the capillary of the regulator. A second wire is fused into the regulator in such a position that it is always in contact with the mercury column. These two wires are connected through an accumulator with a small electro-magnet. The magnet when actuated operates a lever which deflects the flow of ice-cold water from the sink into the thermostat, and at the same time breaks the circuit of the electrical heater, so that the temperature is regulated very quickly. Using such an instrument, the author was able to maintain a temperature of 27° within $\pm 0.5^{\circ}$ in a 3-litre thermostat and the atmospheric temperature at 30° .

J. F. S.

Capacity for Heat of Metals at Low Temperatures. E. I. GRIFFITHS and EZER GRIFFITHS (*Phil. Trans.*, 1914, [A], 214, 319-357).

The specific heats of a large number of substances have been measured at the ordinary temperature, and also at liquid air and liquid hydrogen temperatures, but there have been as yet no direct measurements of the true specific heats at intermediate temperatures. In order to bridge the gap, the authors have worked out a method for maintaining the temperature of an enclosure constant at any point between that of the room and -165° by the application of the Joule-Thomson effect. The method employed for the measurement of the specific heats of metals depends on the determination of the rise in temperature of a block of the metal which is suspended in the constant temperature enclosure and supplied with a measured quantity of electrical energy.

Experiments were made at various temperatures within the above-mentioned range on aluminium, copper, zinc, silver, cadmium, lead, iron, and sodium. Atomic heat temperature curves have been constructed from these data in combination with the results obtained by Nernst at liquid air and hydrogen temperatures.

in comparing the experimental curves with the requirements of the formula put forward by Einstein (*Ann. Physik.* 1907, [iv], 1, 803), Nernst and Lindemann (*A.*, 1911, ii, 466), and by Debye (1912, ii, 1134), it is found that none of these formulae is capable of representing the results over the entire temperature range. Debye's formula appears to give the nearest approximation at the lowest portion of the range, but systematic divergences occur at the higher temperatures. This may be due either to the assumptions made by Debye being valid only at very low temperatures, or it may mean that heat energy, additional to that involved in the three degrees of freedom ascribed to the atom, must be taken into account. Above liquid air temperatures the three formulae are capable of representing the results approximately, but in some cases the discrepancies are considerable.

H. M. D.

Metastability of the Metals in Consequence of Allotropy and its Significance for Chemistry, Physics and Technics. H. M. COHEN (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, p. 203). Compare this vol., ii, 202).—A review of the earlier literature dealing with the specific heat of the metals affords evidence that the specific heat depends in many cases on the previous history of the metals. For copper, zinc, lead, aluminium, the specific heat-temperature curve is not continuous, but jumps abruptly at one or more points. This behaviour is in agreement with dilatometric observations, which indicate the existence of abrupt modifications of some of these metals.

H. M. D.

Determination of the Freezing Point for Salt Solutions. H. VAN DER LAAN (*Chem. Weekblad*, 1914, 11, 925—927).—In determining the freezing point of a salt solution, homogeneity of the liquid must be ensured by vigorous agitation. Failure to observe this precaution leads to inaccurate readings for such solutions, but is not fatal for such liquids as water or milk.

A. J. W.

Boiling Points in Homologous Series. S. SUGDEN (*Chem. Mag.* 1914, 110, 152—153, 165—168).—It is found that the boiling points of the members of homologous series of carbon compounds can be satisfactorily represented by means of the formula $b\sqrt{M} + aM/b$, in which M is the molecular weight, b the boiling point, and a and b are constants. The formula is applicable to the paraffins, alkyl haloids, aldehydes, ketones, amines, alkyl cyanides, normal primary and secondary alcohols, hydrosulphides, esters, nitroparaffins, ethers, olefines, and aromatic hydrocarbons. The average difference between the observed and calculated boiling points for some one hundred and fifty compounds is 1.63° . The values of a vary to a comparatively small extent from one series to another, the aromatic hydrocarbons having the highest value (45.71) and the olefines the lowest (1.9). The values of b vary to a much larger extent, the extremes being shown by the alkyl iodides (-2038.0) and the nitroparaffins (-2038.0).

H. M. D.

Vapour Pressures of Silver, Gold, and Bismuth Amalgams. EMMON DWIGHT EASTMAN and JOEL H. HILDEBRAND (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2020—2030).—In continuation of a study of the properties of concentrated solutions from the point of view of their thermodynamic functions (Hildebrand, A., 1913, ii, 755), measurements have been made of the vapour pressures of silver, gold, and bismuth amalgams at about 318° by the method used in the case of the zinc amalgam (*loc. cit.*).

As silver is but sparingly soluble in mercury at 318°, only one determination was made, namely, with an amalgam containing 1.27% of silver. In this case Raoult's law was obeyed within the limits of experimental error.

Measurements with gold amalgams, at concentrations of 23.7% of gold, showed the separation of a solid phase at the 16.5% concentration. In the more dilute amalgams the vapour pressures were greater than those calculated from Raoult's law.

Bismuth amalgams of all concentrations are liquid at 318°, and also give higher vapour pressures than those calculated from Raoult's law.

For the gold and bismuth amalgams, equations have been derived by Laar (*A.*, 1910, ii, 583; 1913, ii, 670), and these satisfactorily express the values observed.

Method of Finding the Partial from the Total Vapour Pressures of Binary Mixtures, and a Theory of Fractional Distillation. M. A. ROSANOFF, C. W. BACON, and JOHN F. SCHULZE (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 1993—2004).—Bacon, Rosanoff, and White (this vol., ii, 766) have described a simple method of measuring the partial vapour pressures of liquid binary mixtures which consists in distilling the mixtures and analysing successive fractions. In some cases the analysis cannot be satisfactorily accomplished, and the experimental determination of the vapour pressures would therefore be untrustworthy.

It is now shown that the partial pressures can be calculated from the total vapour pressure by means of the general relation:

$$d\pi/dx = [(P_1 - P_2) / (\log P_1 - \log P_2)] \log [p_1(1 - \alpha) / p_2\alpha]$$

where x is the molar fraction of one of the components in the liquid, π the total pressure, p_1 and p_2 the partial pressures, α and P_2 the vapour pressures of the isolated compounds. Calculations have been made by means of this expression for mixtures of carbon tetrachloride and benzene, ethyl iodide and ethyl bromide, chloroform and acetone, and benzene and toluene, and the results agree satisfactorily with those obtained experimentally.

A theory of fractional distillation is presented for the case in which the vapour escapes from the still without having undergone any reflux condensation. This theory is based solely on the principles involved in the equation given in the preceding paragraph.

Measurements of Isotherms of Hydrogen at 20° and 15°. PH. KOHNSTAMM and K. W. WALSTRA (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 203—216).—The authors have investigated

compressibility of hydrogen at 15.5° and 20° for pressures from about 200 to about 2300 atmospheres. The lower temperature was chosen in order to enable a comparison to be made with results with those obtained by Amagat.

In preliminary experiments with air, it was found that at high pressures the mercury quickly became contaminated, in consequence of the formation of mercuric oxide. This prevented the carrying out of measurements on the pressure-volume relations of air and

H. M. D.

Hydrogen Isotherms of 20° and 15.5° between 1 and 2300 Atmospheres. K. W. WALSTRA (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 217—224. Compare preceding abstract). The isotherms at 20° have been compared with those of Schalkwyk, those at 15.5° with the data given by Amagat. For this purpose the experimental results are expressed by means of an equation of the form $PV = a + bD + cD^2 + dD^3 + eD^4$, in which D is the density and a, b, c, d, e are coefficients. In so far as comparison is possible, the author's observations appear to be in satisfactory agreement with Schalkwyk's. Between 700 and 1000 atmospheres, the values of PV given by the author's results are somewhat greater than those calculated from Amagat's data, the difference is particularly marked for pressures above 2000 atmospheres.

H. M. D.

Isotherms of Monatomic Substances and their Binary Mixtures. XVI. New Determination of the Vapour Pressures of Solid Argon down to -205° . C. A. CHROMMELIN (*K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 275—277. Compare preceding abstract).—The vapour pressures of solid argon have been determined over the temperature interval -189.64° to -205.32° , pressures corresponding with these limiting temperatures are respectively 49.78 and 3.830 cm. of mercury. The experimental values are compared with the values calculated according to the formulae of Rankine and Bose, Nernst and Sackur. Sackur's formula, which is based on Nernst's heat theorem, affords satisfactory agreement at the higher temperatures, but there are wide discrepancies at the lower.

The heat of sublimation of solid argon, calculated from the temperature variation of the vapour pressure, falls from 47.36 at -189.64° to 44.51 at -205.32° .

H. M. D.

New Relation between the Critical Quantities and the Properties of All Substances in their Thermic Behaviour. J. J. VAN DER WAALS (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 451—465. Compare vol. ii, 341).—A theoretical paper in which the author arrives at the conclusion that the quantity a in the van der Waals' equation is independent of the density over a very large range. The molecular attraction in both the gaseous and liquid states is satisfactorily represented by a/v^2 . Whether a is also independent of the temperature cannot as yet be determined with

XVI. II.

perfect certainty. With reference to the quantity b , in relation, the evidence is distinctly in favour of its dependence on density and temperature. The significance to be attached to that of the volume (m) occupied by the molecules, and the assumption that $b=4m$ must be discarded.

The thermal behaviour of a substance is not only dependent on the quantities a and b , which determine the critical point, but also on the absolute value of the temperature at which the substance is considered. Every substance passes from the real type to the ideal type when the temperature falls enough and approximates to absolute zero.

H. M.

Free Energy of Oxygen, Hydrogen, and the Oxides of Hydrogen. GILBERT N. LEWIS and MARLE RANDALL (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 1969—1993).—In an earlier paper (Lewis, *ibid.*, ii, 112) an account was given of the general methods used in the energy calculations. These methods have now been applied to the determination of the free energy of oxygen, hydrogen, and the oxides of hydrogen. The calculations have been made from the existing data, but in some cases data have been employed which were obtained in the course of investigations not yet published.

The following are the values (in calories) of the free energy of formation (F° 298) from the elements in their standard states: ozone (O_3), 32,400; hydrogen (H), 30,550; hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), 55,600; hydroxyl ion (OH⁻), -37,385; water (liquid), -56,690 (gas), -54,567; water (solid), -56,478; hydrogen peroxide (aqueous solution), -30,970; hydroperoxide ion (HO₂⁻), -24,270; hydrogen peroxide (liquid), -27,770; hydrogen peroxide (solid), -24,270.

Combustion Calorimetry and the Heats of Combustion of Sucrose, Benzoic Acid, and Naphthalene. HOWARD C. LEE (*J. Washington Acad. Sci.*, 1914, 4, 434—435). A critical study of the stirred water calorimeter, as used for bomb combustion, has been made, and it has been found that the chief sources of error may be avoided by the use of a suitably designed calorimeter with resistance thermometers. Determinations of the heat of combustion of naphthalene gave 9622 ± 2 cal. per gram, with a maximum deviation from the mean of about 5 in 10,000 for 20 observations on the same sample. The value obtained for benzoic acid was 6329 ± 1 cal. per gram, with a maximum deviation of 5 in 10,000, and for sucrose 3949 ± 2 cal. per gram, with a maximum deviation of about 1 in 1000.

The results indicate that benzoic acid is the most suitable of the three substances for calibration purposes. The value for naphthalene necessitates special precautions when this substance is employed, and sucrose is less well adapted, not only on account of the lower precision of the results, but also because of its high heat of combustion and its frequent failure to ignite.

H. M.

Flames with Ether. ALAN LEIGHTON (*J. Physical Chem.*, 18, 619—622).—Perkin (T., 1882, 41, 363) showed that when ether was evaporated in a shallow dish on a hot sand bath, a pale flame was produced, only visible in the dark, which did not burn the ether. This phenomenon had been previously observed by Lieberknecht, and others. The author has investigated this and shows that it may be produced in many ways, among which may be noted the following. A copper ball is heated to redness, and then allowed to cool until it just becomes incandescent, it is then suspended over a dish containing layers of filter paper soaked in ether, when a tall, blue flame is produced. The flame is produced at temperatures below dull redness, but above redness. It has a comparatively low temperature, and the fingers may be placed in it with impunity. It is shown that the flame is produced when ether vapour is mixed with a small amount of oxygen, and no hot surface is necessary. It may therefore be produced by mixing ether with a non-inflammable volatile liquid and lighting the mixture to evaporate and lighting the mixture with a match, or by mixing ether vapour with a non-inflammable gas, such as carbon dioxide. Similar flames can be obtained by replacing ether by carbon disulphide; all the flames have low temperatures. That from carbon disulphide and carbon tetrachloride has a temperature of 90°. J. F. S.

Study of Molecular Volumes. IV. GERVAISE LE BAS (*Phil. Mag.*, [vi], 28, 439—466. Compare this vol., ii, 173, 340, 539). The influence of ring structure on the molecular volume has been examined by reference to the data for a large number of compounds containing one or more rings. The data in question refer for the most part to homocyclic compounds, but heterocyclic compounds are also considered. The relationships exhibited lead to the conclusion that molecular volume is influenced by ring structure to an extent which depends on the number of rings and on the number of groups in the rings. In general there is a contraction, which is contributed to by the elements of the nucleus, and often by the atoms which are attached to these. The contraction is the same whether two rings are separated or condensed; from this it would seem that common atoms of the two or three rings must have extraordinarily small volumes.

The contractions characteristic of the various polymethylene rings are given as: cyclopropane, -5.3; cyclobutane, -8.6; cyclopentane, -12.3; cyclohexane, -16.1; cycloheptane, -20.16; cyclooctane, -24.0. The corresponding value for the benzene ring is 47.

The contraction attributed to the influence of atoms or groups in combination with the elements of the ring nucleus is supposed to be characteristic of atoms or groups which possess residual affinity. If this residual affinity is neutralised, the contraction, as such, disappears. The following values are given for the contractions due to the different groups in combination with the

C_2H_5 , nucleus: OH, -1.5; CN, -1.6; CH_2Cl , -1.9; NO_2 , -2.7; $COCl$, -1.8; NH_2 , -4.4; CO_2H , -2.8. The particular effect is described as the volume anomaly. H. M.

The Unit-Stere Theory of Molecular Volume. VANSTONE (*Phil. Mag.*, 1914, [vi], 28, 600-606).—A criticism of the unit-stere theory advanced by Le Bas (A., 1907, ii, 74). The ratio V/W , where V is the molecular volume and W the sum of the valencies, may be considered as the product of the atomic volume v and M/W , where M is the molecular weight. For a member of a homologous series of compounds, M/W is a constant quantity $(a + n \cdot 14)/(a' + n \cdot 6)$, where a represents the atomic weight of the first member of the series, n the number of atoms, groups, and a' the sum of the valencies for the first member. In the higher members of such a series M/W becomes practically constant and equal to $14/6$ or 2.33 . Since v also tends to constancy, the observed constancy of V/W in the higher members of homologous series can be readily explained. In so far as the members of such series are concerned, the observed variation of V/W can be explained by the relative variations in the atomic volume v and M/W . H. M.

The Unit-Stere Theory. GERVAISE LE BAS (*Phil. Mag.*, [vi], 28, 607-608).—A reply to Vanstone's criticism of the preceding abstract. The author considers that the molecular volume is not divisible into factors represented by the atomic volume and the ratio of the molecular weight to the sum of the valencies. H. M.

Existence of Compounds in Binary Liquid Mixtures. J. HOWARD MATHEWS and RAYMOND D. COOKE (*J. Phys. Chem.*, 1914, 18, 559-585).—Starting from the expression of Batschinski (A., 1913, ii, 928), the authors show that the specific volume curves of non-associated liquids are straight lines, whereas those of associated liquids are concave toward the vertical axis. The authors show that further evidence of the existence of compounds in certain liquid mixtures is obtained by plotting fluidity-specific volume isotherms of binary mixtures, and that this evidence supports the view that a maximum viscosity composition curve of a binary mixture is due to the presence of a compound. Twenty-four pairs of isotherms are plotted in this manner, and of these nine exhibit maxima, the other fifteen give straight lines. The values used in the plots are taken from the work of Dunstan (T., 1901, 85, 111) and Rodger (T., 1897, 71, 360). Linebarger, Faust, and New determinations have been made of the pairs acetone-chloroform (56-44%), methyl alcohol-water (36-64%), propyl alcohol-water (50-50%), water-acetic acid (22-78%), water-pyridine (33-67%), acetic acid-pyridine (77-23%), ethyl alcohol-water (43-57%), chloral-water (88-12%), and chloral-ethyl alcohol (54-46%). The measurements were made at temperatures from 0° to 100° C.

A bibliography of the work done on viscosity, as far as it relates to the chemical and molecular constitution and on the series of completely miscible liquids, is appended to the paper.

J. F. S.

temperature-coefficients of the Free Surface Energy of Liquids at Temperatures from -80° to 1650° . I. Methode of Apparatus. F. M. JAEGER (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 329-365).—An arrangement of apparatus is described by which it has been found possible to make accurate measurements of the surface tension of liquids at temperatures from -80° and 1650° . A capillary tube, provided with a knife-edge opening, is immersed in the liquid perpendicular to its surface, and a small bubble of gas is allowed to form slowly at the end of the capillary tube. The pressure in the gas bubble at the moment when the bubble is about to burst affords a measure of the surface tension of the liquid. Provided that abnormally high pressures are not encountered, the author considers that the results obtained with his apparatus are as accurate at 1650° as at ordinary temperature.

Results obtained at different temperatures for a number of organic substances and for several inorganic salts are recorded in Table I. A comparison was also made between the surface tensions of water and colloidal solutions of ferric hydroxide and silicic acid. The curves showing the relation between the surface-energy and temperature are of the same kind, but those for the colloidal solutions are situated above the curve for water.

H. M. D.

temperature-coefficients of the Free Surface Energy of Liquids at Temperatures from -80° to 1650° . II. Measurements of Some Aliphatic Derivatives. F. M. JAEGER and M. J. SMIT (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 386).—Measurements of the temperature variation of the surface energy (σ) have been made for *n*-propyl alcohol, ethyl alcohol, diethyl ether, ethyl formate, ethyl chloroformate, ethyl acetate, methyl isobutyrate, ethyl isobutyrate, isobutyl isobutyrate, acetone, methyl propyl ketone, ethyl acetoacetate, methyl acetoacetate, ethyl propylacetoacetate, methyl, ethyl, isobutyl, isobutyl and amyl cyanoacetates, chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, and isobutyl bromide. In most cases $d\sigma/dt$ decreases with increase of temperature. Where an increase was observed this was attributed to decomposition of the substance.

H. M. D.

temperature-coefficients of the Free Surface Energy of Liquids at Temperatures from -80° to 1650° . III. Measurements of some Aromatic Derivatives. F. M. JAEGER and M. J. SMIT (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 386-394).—The following substances were examined: nitrobenzene, *o*-nitrobenzene, aniline, dimethylaniline, *o*-toluidine, thymol, methyl, ethyl, and benzyl benzoates, salicylaldehyde, acetophenone, and

α -campholenic acid. The curves obtained by plotting the molecular surface energy against the temperature are concave to the axis, in the case of nitrobenzene, *o*-nitrotoluene, aniline, and *o*-nitroanisole, indicating that du/dt increases with the temperature. In this behaviour these substances resemble water, but differ from the majority of the substances examined in the previous paper (see preceding abstract).

H. M. J.

Temperature-coefficients of the Free Surface Energy of Liquids at Temperatures from -80° to 1650° . IV. Measurements of Some Aliphatic and Aromatic Esters. F. M. JAEGER and JUL. KAHN (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 395—405).—The data recorded refer to amyl acetate, ethyl acetate, ethyl malonate, ethyl bromomalonate, ethyl benzylethylmalonate, methyl and ethyl tartrates, methyl, ethyl and phenyl salicylate, methyl cinnamate, and *o*-nitroanisole. The surface-energy-temperature curves indicate a sharp rise in du/dt when the temperature becomes sufficiently high for decomposition to take place.

H. M. J.

Temperature-coefficients of the Free Surface Energy of Liquids at Temperatures from -80° to 1650° . V. Measurements of Homologous Aromatic Hydrocarbons and Some of their Halogen Derivatives. F. M. JAEGER (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 405—415).—Data are given for benzene, toluene, *p*-xylene, mesitylene, ψ -cumene, *o*-xylene, phenylmethane, chlorobenzene, bromobenzene, *m*-dichlorobenzene, *p*-bromofluorobenzene, *m*-fluorotoluene, and *p*-chlorotoluene. The hydrocarbons and their halogen derivatives afford examples of an increase and decrease in the value of du/dt with rise of temperature. The deviations of the surface energy-temperature curves from straight lines are so large in many cases that they cannot be accounted for by error of experiment. In the case of toluene, for instance, du/dt increases from 1.60 for the interval 140° to 146° to 3.0 for the interval 146° to 166° .

H. M. J.

Temperature-coefficients of the Free Surface Energy of Liquids at Temperatures from -80° to 1650° . VI. General Remarks. F. M. JAEGER (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 416—430). Compare preceding abstracts. The collected results recorded in the previous papers it would seem that the temperature-coefficient of the molecular surface energy is independent of the temperature, or with rise of temperature increases or diminishes. No connexion can be traced between the temperature to which a particular liquid belongs and the magnitude of its molecular surface energy, or of its temperature-coefficient. The absence in general of a linear connexion between the surface energy and the temperature is supposed to be connected with the non-linearity of surface energy, and this departure from linearity is expected whenever the interval of temperature examined is not large enough.

With regard to the connexion between the molecular

and the chemical nature of the liquid, it is found that the surface energy at the same temperature increases in homologous series with the molecular weight. Replacement of hydrogen by methyl, by the nitro- or amino-groups, and by aromatic hydrocarbon radicals leads to an increase in the molecular surface energy. The comparison is made at a fixed temperature. H. M. D.

The Adsorption of Vapours. A. M. WILLIAMS (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 167—171. Compare this vol., ii, 111).—The adsorption near to the saturated vapour pressure of a liquid is independent of the temperature, but is not necessarily a maximum. C. H. D.

"Negative" Adsorption. A. M. WILLIAMS (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 155—159. Compare this vol., ii, 111).—The adsorption of ammonium chloride and magnesium sulphate by charcoal increases to a maximum, decreases, passes through a minimum, and becomes negative. Ammonium chloride also exhibits a minimum. C. H. D.

Action between Clay Filters and Certain Salt Solutions. B. HICKS (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 829—831).—Filtration through porcelain clay filters produces little or no change in the sodium content of $N/10$ -borate solutions, a slight decrease, about 1%, in concentration in $N/10$ -alkali chloride and sulphate solutions, a larger decrease in $N/10$ -alkali carbonate solutions, and a still larger decrease, 8%, in the case of $N/1000$ -alkali carbonate solutions. Ammonia and potassium are also absorbed by the filters in solutions of their salts; the retained ammonia may be removed by washing the filter with potassium chloride solution, but in the case of potassium a small quantity is persistently retained by the filter, even after persistent washing with water and ammonium hydroxide solution. W. P. S.

The Theory of Colloid Chemistry. WILDER D. BANCROFT (*Physical Chem.*, 1914, 18, 549—558).—A lecture delivered to the annual meeting of the American Chemical Society, in which a new theory of colloid chemistry is discussed. The theory is based on the four postulates: (1) Colloid chemistry differs from ordinary chemistry only through the variations resulting from the varying dispersity of one or more phases. (2) Selective adsorption occurs at surfaces. (3) Sufficiently finely divided particles, when prevented from coalescing, will be kept suspended in a medium by the Brownian movements; and (4) under fixed conditions of peptonisation an approximately definite limiting concentration is obtained corresponding with a saturated solution in the case of a true solution. J. F. S.

Equilibria in Ternary Systems. XVI. F. A. H. SCHREINEMAKERS (*K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 169—182. Compare this vol., ii, 634).—A further discussion of the equilibrium relation-

ships for the case in which one of the three components is practically non-volatile. H. M. L.

New Form of Intermittent Siphon. W. A. BRADLEY (*Chem. News*, 1914, 110, 163).—A simple form of intermittent siphon is described, which permits of the automatic flushing of the siphon in a gas absorption tube with a small quantity of liquid. The siphon is used in conjunction with a constant feed of water and the capacity of the flush can be varied by a simple adjustment. H. M. L.

Inorganic Chemistry.

Displacement of Acids by Hydrogen Peroxide. JOACHIM SPERBER (*Chem. Zentr.*, 1914, i, 2139; from *Schweizer. Chem. Zeit.*, 1914, 52, 245—248. Compare this vol., ii, 557). The action of hydrogen peroxide on halogen acids has been further studied. The affinity of the halogen hydrides for hydrogen peroxide varies. The affinity of the halogen for oxygen, hydrogen iodide being decomposed. The reaction depends on the order in which the substances are brought together. When hydrogen iodide is added to hydrogen peroxide, the reaction is so violent that the iodine which is first liberated volatilises, leaving a colourless liquid. When hydrogen peroxide is added to an excess of the acid, though the reaction is vigorous, the iodine does not disappear. Exactly the reverse is the case with the other acids. The reaction is more energetic when hydrogen peroxide is added to the acid. The alkali salts behave in the same way, from which it appears that hydrogen peroxide first liberates the free acid and then decomposes it. This view is supported by the fact that ammonium peroxide (D. A. Wedig, A., 1913, ii, 1051) precipitates the peroxides from solutions of the alkaline earth haloids. J. C. S.

The System Ammonia-Water. A. SMITS and S. P. J. VAN DER KAM (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 17, 182—194).—From cooling-curve observations have enabled the authors to give a complete description of the freezing-point diagram. The two compounds $2\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ melt at -78.9° and -106.5° respectively. The eutectic point at which ammonia and $2\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ meet as solid phases lies at 81.4 mols. % of ammonia and -92.5° . The point at which $2\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ co-exist lies at 63.1 ammonia and -86.0° , and that corresponding with the congruent melting of $\text{NH}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and ice at 34.7% of ammonia and -100.3° . Even in the interval for mixtures containing 30—40 mols. % of ammonia the authors' data agree satisfactorily with those of Rupert (A., 1896, 726; 1910, ii, 605).

The vapour pressures of binary mixtures of varying composition have also been determined over a considerable interval of temperature, but the curves constructed on the basis of these data afford no evidence of the formation of definite compounds. H. M. D.

Action of the Silent Electric Discharge on Mixtures of Nitrogen and Nitrogen. M. LE BLANC (*Chem. Zentr.*, 1914, ii, 1631; from *Ber. K. Sächs. Ges. Wiss., Math.-phys. Kl.*, 1914, 66, 451).—Earlier experiments (Le Blanc and Davies, A., 1908, ii, 1; Davies, A., 1909, ii, 30) indicated that the formation of ammonia by the silent electric discharge does not obey the law of mass action. This might have been due to alterations in the electrical conditions, caused by changes in the composition of the gas mixture. It is now found, however, that, even when the gases are largely diluted with a helium-neon mixture, the quantitative results are the same. The old experiments have been repeated with a better apparatus, and the phenomena are found to be very complicated. The amount of ammonia formed depends on the pressure of the apparatus, and the density and oscillation frequency of the current. J. C. W.

Volatilisation of Arsenious Acid from Aqueous Solutions containing Hydrochloric Acid. BERTRAM JAMES SMART and T. PHILPOT (*J. Soc. Chem. Ind.*, 1914, 33, 900-902).—Volumes of 200 c.c. of hydrochloric acid solution of various concentrations, both above and below that of the constant boiling mixture, containing various quantities of arsenious acid, have been subjected to fractional distillation. The distillates have been analysed with a view to ascertaining to what extent and under what conditions the arsenic volatilises with the acid. It is shown that when solutions are distilled, those which contain the greatest concentration of hydrochloric acid give off the arsenic most rapidly. When hydrochloric acid is present to the extent of about 190 grams per litre or more, the concentration of arsenic in the solution after undistilled rapidly falls as the solution is fractionated. In solutions containing less than 180 grams of hydrochloric acid per litre, the concentration of arsenic in the solution remaining undistilled rises, although some of the arsenic passes over, the ratio of acid and arsenic remaining practically constant until the solution contains about 185 grams of hydrochloric acid per litre. This point corresponds approximately with a hydrate of the formula $\text{H}_2\text{H}_2\text{O}$. When the acid becomes more concentrated the proportion of arsenic volatilised increases rapidly. J. F. S.

Reduction of Arsenic Acid to Arsenious Acid by means of Thiosulphuric Acid. ROBERT M. CHAPIN (*Chem. Zentr.*, 1914, ii, 2632-2633; from *J. Agric. Res.*, 1914, 1, 515-517).—Arsenic acid is completely and quickly reduced to arsenious acid in solution by a mixture of sodium thiosulphate and a mineral acid. The rate of the reaction depends to a great extent on the concentration of the hydrogen ions, and the course of the reduction is

influenced by the amounts of the reagents and by the order in which they are mixed. The reaction is therefore complex and appears to correspond with the reduction of a dichromate by sulphuric acid (compare Stiasny and Das, A., 1912, ii, 247).

J. C. W.

Isotherm of the Solubility of Lithium Chloride at 25° in Mixtures of Water and Ethyl Alcohol. S. PISA DE HAAN (*Anal. Fis. Quim.*, 1914, 12, 343—349).—The solubility of lithium chloride in aqueous alcohol decreases regularly in solvents containing up to 70% by weight of alcohol; the solubility curve is nearly linear, the coefficient being 0.6939 per gram of alcohol. The solid during this stage exists as $\text{LiCl} \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$. The anhydrous salt is deposited from solutions in pure alcohol.

G. H. L.

Silicate Chemistry. II and III. Lithium Aluminium Silicates the Composition of which Corresponds with that of the Minerals Eucryptite and Spodumene. F. M. JONES and ANT. SIMER (*Proc. K. Akad. Wetensch. Amsterdam*, 1914, 21, 239—251, 251—270. Compare this vol., ii, 363).—II A lithium aluminium silicate of the composition LiAlSiO_3 has been prepared from a mixture of lithium carbonate, alumina, and silica by fusing in a closed crucible at 1500° . When the fusion mass is cooled, small, irregularly shaped crystals are obtained, for measurements of the mean refractive index and the density $n_D=1.531$ and $D=2.362$ at 25° . These data indicate that the artificial silicate is not identical with the mineral eucryptite. The synthetic product has been named *pseudo-eucryptite*. If the fusion is rapidly cooled by quenching, a pseudo-eucryptite is obtained, for which $n_D=1.541$. This glass is metastable with regard to the birefringent crystalline modification, and is rapidly converted into this on heating at 900° . The melting point of pseudo-eucryptite is given as 1388° .

The compound $\text{LiAl}(\text{SiO}_3)_2$ was prepared by fusion of a mixture of the same substances containing a larger proportion of silica. The purest product obtained was found to melt at 1490° and $n_D=1.521$ and $D=2.411$ at 25° . Since the physical properties differ appreciably from those of the mineral spodumene, the synthetic product has been named *β -spodumene*.

III. For the purpose of comparing the properties of the synthetic β -spodumene with the mineral varieties, the authors have determined the melting points and densities of a number of natural kunzites and spodumenes. The data indicate that, in general, the melting points of the natural kunzites are considerably higher than the values obtained for the synthetic products. It would appear that the melting points of the minerals decrease as the density increases.

Micrographic examination of the products which are obtained when the mineral varieties of lithium aluminium silicate are fused and allowed to cool slowly afford evidence that β -spodumene is thereby formed. These observations lead to the conclusion that

the natural kunzites, hiddenites, and spodumenes are metastable species (a spodumenes) of the compound, and that β -spodumene is the stable form at all temperatures below 1400° . The natural spodumenes cannot therefore be produced from dry magmas, and it is probable that their formation is due to so-called "hydrothermal" synthesis.

A lithium aluminate of the composition LiAlO_2 was prepared by fusion of a mixture of lithium carbonate and alumina at 900° , and then at 1200° . It forms microscopic hexagonal or octagonal plates which show pronounced double refraction. The indices were found to be $n_D = 1.604$ and $n'_D = 1.615$; $D_{20}^{25} = 2.554$. The melting point could not be determined, but it is higher than 1625° .

H. M. D.

Cesium Alum and Its Properties. EDWARD HART and LEON B. HUSKELTON (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, **36**, 2082—2084).—The solubilities of cesium alum, expressed as the number of grams of the anhydrous salt, $\text{AlCs}(\text{SO}_4)_2$, per 100 grams of water, have been determined as follows: at 7° , 0.26; at 19° , 0.42; at 22° , 0.43; at 24° , 0.47; at 29.5° , 0.57; at 31.5° , 0.60; at 40° , 0.86; at 41° , 0.90; at 47° , 1.17; at 49.25° , 1.39; at 50° , 1.42; at 56° , 1.86; at 60° , 2.06; at 66° , 2.85; at 68° , 3.13; at 80° , 5.78. Two determinations of the specific gravity of the hydrated alum gave a mean value 1.945. The crystals melt in their water of crystallisation at 117° . These values are compared with those recorded by other observers.

E. G.

Influence of Certain Hydroxylic Compounds on the Solubility of Mercuric Chloride in Water. E. MOLES and M. LAGUNA (*Anal. Fis. Quim.*, 1914, **12**, 383—393).—Glycerol and glucose increase the solubility of mercuric chloride in water, whereas tartaric and citric acids decrease it. The solubility in alcohol is 1 in 1.25 at $25^{\circ} \pm 0.02$.

G. D. L.

Terbium. C. JAMES and D. W. BISSEL (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, **36**, 2060—2066).—Urbain (A., 1909, ii, 671) has stated that terbium is homogeneous, whereas Welsbach (*Chem. Zeit.*, 1911, **35**, 658) has expressed the opinion that it consists of three different elements. The present paper gives an account of a further study of this question.

The material employed consisted of gadolinium oxide containing cerium oxide, together with dysprosium and holmium oxides and traces of yttrium and erbium. It was converted into the bromates, which were submitted to a long and careful fractionation. The results indicate that terbium is a single homogeneous element. The bromate process effects a comparatively rapid separation of cerium from gadolinium; neodymium, if present, comes between these metals.

E. G.

The Acidic and Colloidal Characteristics of Aluminium Hydroxide. R. E. SLADE and W. G. POLACK (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, **10**, 150—154).—Mahin, Ingraham and Stewart (A., 1913, ii,

139) stated that a solution of sodium aluminate is really a colloidal solution of the hydroxide in the alkali. It is now shown that the conclusions which these authors drew from their experiments in support of the above view, were unjustified. Conductance measurements of such solutions are against the assumption of colloidal particles, and, when hydrolysis takes place, crystalline aluminium hydroxide is deposited. The ultramicroscope affords conclusive evidence either way. J. C. W.

Advances in the Metallurgy of Iron and Steel. Sir HENRY HADFIELD (*Trans. Faraday Soc.*, 1914, 10, 1-43).—A paper delivered to the Faraday Society on June 11th, 1914. C. H. D.

Chromyl Chloride. II. E. MOLES and L. GÓMEZ (*Anál. Fis. Quím.*, 1914, 12, 142-154. Compare A., 1912, ii, 166).—Analysis of recently prepared chromyl chloride give values very different from the theoretical, and lead to the supposition that the earlier workers probably did not examine the pure compound. No change was observed after two months, but after nineteen months a black coloured solid was deposited, which is possibly a polymer. G. D. L.

The heat of solution was found to be 17.86 cal. (Bertelot, 1911).

The molecular weight, determined cryoscopically in carbon tetrachloride, tin tetrabromide, and antimony pentachloride, points to the formation of molecular complexes in conformity with the tendency to polymerisation noted above. G. D. L.

Inorganic Solvents. I. Antimony Pentachloride. MOLES (*Anál. Fis. Quím.*, 1914, 12, 314-343).—Pure antimony pentachloride is lemon-yellow in colour, acquiring an orange colour by the presence of chlorine. It has m. p. 3.02°, cryoscopic constant 18.5, heat of fusion 8.17 cal., and D_4^{20} 2.3356.

The action of antimony pentachloride on potassium iodide, lead, selenium, and tellurium yield the crystalline double compounds, their tetrachlorides with antimony pentachloride. G. D. L.

Dilute Solutions of Aluminium in Gold. C. T. HAYES and F. H. NEVILLE (*Phil. Trans.*, 1914, [A], 214, 267-276).—The equilibrium relations exhibited by aluminium and gold have been investigated by experiments on mixtures containing up to 1.5% weight of aluminium. The actual observations consisted in the tracing of cooling curves and in the microscopic examination of ingots which had been annealed at definite temperatures and chilled by immersion in water.

The concentration-temperature diagram indicates the existence of two series of solid solutions (α and β), and of a compound of the composition Al_3Au_8 . This compound is found in all the alloys containing from 18 to 28 atoms % of aluminium. Resistance phenomena associated with the cooling curves of alloys containing from 10 to 27 atoms % of aluminium point also to the formation of a compound, AlAu_4 . The relations between these phases are discussed with reference to an extensive series of metallographic photographs. H. M. P.

Mineralogical Chemistry.

Mixed Carbonates from Traversella. MARIO DELGROSSO (*Atti Acad. Sci. Torino*, 1914, 49, 1106—1117. Compare A., 1913, ii, 31).—The author has analysed a number of specimens from the Traversella deposits containing calcium, magnesium, and ferrous carbonates, together with small proportions of extraneous matter. The presence of ferrous carbonate is not always recognisable from external characters, the most nearly colourless rhombohedral crystals often containing this carbonate in large proportions. In only one instance, where the conditions of deposition were evidently normal, was there any marked divergence from the relation $(\text{CO}_3)_2 = \text{MgCO}_3 + \text{FeCO}_3$. The conclusion is drawn that these crystals represent isomorphous mixtures of typical dolomite with small ankerite. T. H. P.

Melilite and Other Minerals from Gunnison Co., Colorado. HAN S. LARSEN and J. FRED HUNTER (*J. Washington Acad. Sci.*, 1914, 4, 473—479).—A complex of coarse-grained alkaline igneous rocks occurs near Cebolla and Beaver Creeks in the Uncompahgre Quadrangle, Colorado. One of these rocks, named uncompahgrite, is composed largely of melilite, together with pyroxene, perovskite, apatite, and apatite. The melilite, occurring as large cleavages reaching a foot across, is colourless to grey with a greasy luster, and closely resembles nephelite in appearance. It gelatinises easily with weak acids; analysis gave I, D 2.98 (after deducting small amounts of apatite, calcite, magnetite, and perovskite). Two types of alteration of the melilite are recognised: most frequently altered to a fine aggregate of garnet, diopside, idocrase, etc.; at other times to the new mineral cebollite (see following abstract):

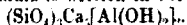
SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	CaO
I. 44.73	—	10.80	—	2.04	0.16	34.63
II. 44.09	5.03	4.46	24.09	—	—	31.06
		MgO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	H ₂ O	Total
		I. 4.35	3.40	trace	0.49	100.00
		II. 0.52	—	—	—	99.51

Analysis II is of a black, titaniferous andradite from a soda-silicate allied to ijolite. A description is given of the perovskite present in these rocks, and also of anatase occurring as large, dark, translucent crystals on the joint planes of a diorite dyke.

L. J. S.

Cebollite, a New Mineral. ESPEER S. LARSEN and W. T. SCHALLER (*J. Washington Acad. Sci.*, 1914, 4, 480—482).—This mineral occurs as an alteration product of melilite at Beaver Creek, Gunnison Co., Colorado (see preceding abstract). It forms a dull, compact, white

to greenish fibrous aggregate; D 2.96, hardness 5. The characters of the minute fibres suggest orthorhombic. The following analysis (after deducting 18.05% insoluble admixed diopside, garnet, idocrase, etc.) gives the formula $H_2Al_2Ca_2Si_2O_{16}$. Since the powdered mineral in water shows a weak alkaline reaction with phenolphthalein, the group (CaOH) is to be absent, and the formula is written in the form:



The mineral gelatinises with acids, and is perhaps related to zeolites.

SiO_2	Al_2O_3	Fe_2O_3	FeO	CaO	MgO	Na_2O	K_2O	H_2O
33.02	14.02	3.43	0.21	35.72	4.39	2.57	trace	10.00

Analytical Chemistry.

Apparatus for the Analysis of Complex Gas Mixtures. GUY B. TAYLOR (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 845—848).—The apparatus described the Bone and Wheeler method of analysis (A., 1908, ii, 221) is combined with the usual gas compensation burette, a copper oxide U-tube for the estimation of hydrogen and carbon monoxide, and a slow combustion burette for burning hydrocarbons. The absorption vessels dip into a mercury trough; the reagents are introduced by means of curved pipes under the lower edge of the absorption vessels, and after use are discharged by the aid of a suction apparatus. A trustworthy method for the separation of carbon monoxide, hydrogen, methane and ethane is given. W. P. S.

New Method for the Precise Standardisation of Hydrochloric Acid Solutions. LAUNCELOT W. ANDREWS (*J. American Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2089—2091).—The following method for standardising solutions of hydrochloric acid depends on the loss of weight caused by the conversion of silver nitrate into the chloride; its accuracy is only limited by the errors of weighing.

Two similar silica or porcelain dishes, of 75—100 cc. capacity, are taken, each provided with a light cover and one of them with a stirring rod, short enough to lie under the cover. The dish without a rod is referred to as the "companion dish." Into each other are placed about 2 grams of pure silver nitrate. Both are put into an oven at 160°, and the temperature is raised to 200° until the weight is constant. Fifty c.c. of 0.2N-hydrochloric acid to be standardised are placed in each dish, the temperature of the solution when measured being noted. The silver nitrate is stirred up with the solution until it has dissolved and the silver chloride

isolated. Both dishes are heated at 95–100°, finally dried at 100°, cooled in the desiccator, and weighed. The increase in the weight of the companion dish represents the weight of non-volatile particles contained in the acid, and its amount is deducted from the observed weight of the silver chloride. The normality of the solution is given by the expression $N = (W - W_1 + w_1 - w) / (0.02635V)$, where V is the corrected volume of the solution, W the weight of silver nitrate and dish, W_1 the weight of the silver chloride, w the weight of the companion dish before experiment, and w_1 its weight at the close of the experiment.

E. G.

Estimation of Iodine in Connexion with Studies in Tyroid Activity E. C. KENDALL (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 1–56). Compare A., 1912, ii, 864.—The author gives additional details and slight modifications of his process for estimating iodine in the presence of chlorides, bromides, and organic matter.

H. W. B.

Oxidation of Sulphur Compounds of Coal, and of Nitrogen in the Bomb Calorimeter, and the Correction to be Applied in Estimating the Heat Value of Coal. SAMUEL H. BOSTER (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 812–822).—When the sulphur compound of coal, pyrites, is burned with a non-inert gas as fuel in the calorimeter in an atmosphere of oxygen under pressure, a fairly stable condition results. This condition is intermediate between the practically complete conversion to sulphur dioxide existing under the conditions of equilibrium at ordinary temperatures, and the almost total absence of sulphur trioxide characteristic of combustions without a catalyst to convert the sulphur dioxide into sulphur trioxide as the temperature falls. The relative amount of sulphur converted into sulphur trioxide increases with the amount of nitrogen oxides formed in the bomb. The nitrogen of coal is much more efficient in forming nitrogen oxides than is the nitrogen of the bomb gases; this, in connexion with the fact that in ordinary work the concentration of nitrogen in the bomb gases before ignition is at least 5%, accounts for the incomplete oxidation of the sulphur in coal to sulphur trioxide. Much too low results are obtained when coal containing less than 7% of sulphur is burned at 20 atmospheres pressure with 0.53% of nitrogen in the bomb gases. With higher percentages of nitrogen the results are more trustworthy. In burning coal with less than 2% of sulphur in a bomb calorimeter from which the air is not removed previously, there is the sufficient formation of nitrogen oxides to ensure almost complete oxidation of the sulphur. The heating value of sulphur is found to be 4975 cal. per gram.

W. P. S.

Chief Cause of the Loss of Sulphur Trioxide and of Chlorine by Incinerating Substances Containing these Constituents. JAMES O'SULLIVAN (*Analyst*, 1914, 39, 425–428).—During the incineration of substances containing chlorides the latter

are decomposed and chlorine is lost, but no reduction takes place in the quantity of calcium, potassium, and sodium sulphates which may be present. Magnesium sulphate undergoes decomposition on ignition unless a carbonate is present; in the absence of a carbonate magnesium sulphate is converted entirely into magnesium oxide. If present in sufficient quantity in a substance containing chlorine, magnesium sulphate may cause the whole of the chlorine to be lost when the substance is incinerated. W. P. S.

Presence of Sulphates in Flour. R. A. CHURCH and A. G. WRIGHT (*Analyst*, 1914, 39, 429).—The quantity of sulphates found in the ash of flour, amounting to about 0.02% of the weight of the ash, does not represent the amount of sulphates in the flour, since, during ignition, the hydrogen phosphates present decompose the sulphates with loss of sulphuric acid. From 0.0059 to 0.0071 of sulphur trioxide is found if the flour is extracted with dilute acetic acid and the sulphate precipitated in the solution by the addition of barium chloride, after the proteins have been removed by means of tannin solution. W. P. S.

Calcination of Magnesium Ammonium Phosphate and Causes of its Blackening. JOSÉ GIRAL PEREIRA (*Anal. Fis. Quím.*, 1914, 12, 109—112).—The darkening of this phosphate on calcination is due in all cases to organic matter, which also determines the eventual formation of phosphides. In the absence of organic matter, the calcined substance remains quite colourless. G. H. L.

Estimation of Carbon in Steel by the Direct Combustion Method. WM. BRADY (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 843—846).—The method consists in the direct combustion of the metal in oxygen; the carbon dioxide produced is absorbed in a known excess of barium hydroxide solution. When the combustion is completed, the barium carbonate and excess of barium hydroxide are rinsed into a flask, and the hydroxide is titrated with standardised hydrochloric acid, using phenolphthalein as indicator. The oxygen used is passed through potassium hydroxide solution and soda-lime, and a tube containing granulated zinc is placed between the combustion tube and the absorption apparatus to prevent any sulphuric acid resulting from the oxidation of sulphur from passing into the barium hydroxide solution. W. P. S.

Estimation of Carbon in Steels and Irons by Direct Combustion in Oxygen at High Temperature. J. R. CAN and H. E. CLEAVES (*J. Washington Acad. Sci.*, 1914, 4, 393—397).—In the ordinary method of estimating carbon in steels, etc., by combustion in oxygen, small additional quantities of carbon are obtained when the oxides are powdered and again heated in oxygen. The authors in place of the latter procedure, increase the heat of the furnace after the metal has been oxidised as far as possible under the usual conditions, and maintain the oxides in a state of fusion for about thirty minutes. In this way it was found that some steels yield

any more carbon and others give decidedly more, whilst with the increase amounts to nearly 0.02%. The barium carbonate method (this vol., ii, 577) was used for the estimation of carbon dioxide.

W. P. S.

Perchloric Method of Estimating Potassium, as Applied to Water Analysis. CLARENCE SCHOLL (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2083-2089).—The method of estimating potassium as the perchlorate has been studied and proved to be accurate. Sulphates and ammonium salts must be eliminated before applying the test, phosphates do not introduce any error, and therefore need not be removed.

The method as modified for use in water analysis is as follows: A measured quantity of the water is evaporated to 150 c.c., 10 c.c. of concentrated hydrochloric acid are added, and the liquid is boiled until it boils. Barium chloride solution (10%) is now introduced drop by drop until all the sulphates are precipitated, and after boiling for fifteen minutes the solution is filtered, the filtrate evaporated to dryness, and the residue heated until all the ammonium salts have been expelled. The residue is dissolved in 20 c.c. of water, a slight excess of 20% perchloric acid solution added, and the solution evaporated to dryness. If white fumes do not appear, the residue is redissolved in 10 c.c. of water, again treated with perchloric acid, and evaporated to dryness; this process is repeated until white fumes appear. The residue is now treated with 25 c.c. of 96-97% alcohol containing 0.2% of perchloric acid, shaken up with a stirring rod, collected in a Gooch crucible, washed with the alcoholic solution of perchloric acid, dried at 120-130°, and weighed.

The method is rapid, simple, inexpensive, and accurate. E. G.

Estimation of Zinc in Treated Wood. M. HUME BEDFORD and E. FRANSTIEL (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 811).—The following method is recommended for the estimation of zinc in red oak which has been treated with zinc chloride. Three grams of the sawdust, dried at 110°, are mixed with 35 grams of sodium peroxide and pressed in a bomb. The mass is then dissolved in water, the solution acidified with hydrochloric acid, boiled, and 2 grams of nitric acid, 10 c.c. of concentrated nitric acid, and 5 c.c. of 8% barium chloride solution are added. The mixture is rendered alkaline, an excess of concentrated ammonia are added, and, after diluting to 400 c.c., the zinc is titrated at 80° with standardised potassium ferrocyanide solution.

W. P. S.

Detection of Lead in Toxicology, Particularly in Urine in the case of Lead Poisoning. G. MEILLÈRE (*J. Pharm. Chim.*, 1914, 1, 10, 225-231).—Small quantities of lead in solution may be detected by adding copper sulphate to the solution, precipitating the metals with hydrogen sulphide, dissolving the mixed sulphides with acetic acid, and then separating the lead from the copper electrolytically. In the case of urine, the quantity voided during twenty-four hours is treated with 1% of its volume of hydrochloric acid,

vol. cvl. ii.

1 gram of copper sulphate is added, and the mixture is treated with hydrogen sulphide. The precipitate is collected on a filter, washed, then dissolved in nitric acid, the solution evaporated, and the residue heated until the copper nitrate is converted into cuprous oxide. This residue is dissolved in 6 c.c. of nitric acid, the solution is diluted to 100 c.c., and submitted to electrolysis. Small platinum electrodes are employed; the whole of the lead is deposited on the anode within twenty-four hours by using a current of 2 volts and of such amperage that there is but a slight evolution of gas at the anode. The deposit of lead peroxide may be weighed, and identified by dissolving it in nitric acid containing oxalic acid, and applying suitable tests to the solution. W.P.

Method of Estimating Small Quantities of Lead in Solder, etc. PIERRE BRETEAU and PAUL FLEURY (*J. Pharm. Sci.* 1914, [viii], 10, 265—273. Compare this vol., ii, 775). The sample is fused with a mixture of sodium carbonate and sulphur, the mass is treated with boiling water, and the lead, copper, and iron sulphides are collected on a filter. These sulphides are then dissolved in hydrochloric acid containing bromine, the solution is treated with sulphurous acid to reduce the iron, and, after ten minutes, potassium cyanide and potassium hydroxide are added. The addition of sodium sulphide to the alkaline solution causes lead to be precipitated as its sulphide, whilst the iron and copper remain in solution. The lead sulphide is collected, dissolved in dilute nitric acid, the solution evaporated, and the residue heated for one hour at 150°. The residue is then dissolved in water, the solution again evaporated, and heated. The lead nitrate obtained is dissolved in 5 c.c. of water, a small crystal of acetic acetate is added, and the solution is poured slowly into a large excess of standard potassium dichromate solution; the dichromate solution must not be added to the lead solution. The lead sulphide is then collected on a filter, washed with water, and the excess dichromate is estimated in the filtrate. The potassium dichromate solution may conveniently contain 0.1432 gram of the salt per 5 c.c. of this solution are equivalent to 0.001 gram of lead. Lead, copper and iron may be estimated by the usual methods in the filtrate from the lead sulphide after the hydrogen sulphide has been expelled by boiling the solution with the addition of sulphurous acid. W.P.

Separation of Vanadium and Phosphorus with Cupferric VICENTE GARCÍA RODEJA (*Anal. Fis. Quim.* 1914, 12, 37—42). After reduction of the vanadate to the hypovanadate, the vanadate is quantitatively precipitated by freshly prepared cupferric solution, and the phosphate may be estimated in the filtrate. G.P.

An Arrangement for the Detection of Residual Acetylenic Hydrocarbons in Caoutchouc. L. LUTZ (*Chem. Zentr.* 1914, 102; from *Bull. Sci. Pharmacol.* 1914, 21, 193—195).—An arrangement of a flask fitted with a delivery tube, bent over

the angles, is described, in which finely cut caoutchouc may be used with water so that, while the water is condensed in the first vertical tube, any volatile hydrocarbons pass over into a suitable receiver.

J. C. W.

Hydrogen Number of Some Essential Oils and Essential Products. I. Oils of Sassafras, Anise, Fennel, Clove, and Pimento. ALAN R. ALBRIGHT (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2202-2212).—Fokin (A., 1908, ii, 637) has suggested the deter-

mination of hydrogen numbers for unsaturated compounds corresponding with the iodine numbers of Hübl and Wys. It has now been found that a hydrogen number can be assigned to certain essential oils, colloidal palladium being used as the catalyst. Some, especially those with a constituent containing an allyl or propenyl group, are capable of very rapid hydrogenation. Such compounds are so rapidly reduced that, in the case of an oil containing one of them, the allyl or propenyl groups are quantitatively reduced before other configurations are attacked to more than this extent. The hydrogen number of the oil is defined as the number of c.c. of hydrogen at 0° and 760 mm. which are absorbed by 1 gram of the oil during the period of most rapid absorption of gas.

In order to determine the hydrogen numbers of the oils of sassafras, anise, fennel, clove, and pimento, experiments were first made with the active constituents of the oils, namely, safrole, eugenol, and eugenol. Imitation oils were then prepared containing the particular active constituent in the proportion in which it occurs in the natural oil, the remainder being represented by limonene. As limonene itself absorbs hydrogen fairly rapidly, the tests afforded a somewhat severe test of the hydrogenation power determination. Samples of commercial oils were subsequently submitted to the hydrogenation process. The hydrogen numbers of the various substances and oils are recorded. E. G.

New Reaction for Resorcinol. PARIDE TORTI (*Bo'll. Chim.*, 1914, 53, 265).—When a little resorcinol is heated with a few drops of nitric acid (D 1.40), an intense red coloration is formed. The reaction is visible with as little as 0.00025 gram of resorcinol, which is forty times as sensitive as the reaction with ferric chloride. On cooling, the liquid deposits minute, reddish-brown, acicular crystals, which are soft to the touch, and dissolve in water, alcohol, ether, or chloroform.

T. H. P.

Estimation of Sugar in Blood. PHILIP A. SHAFFER (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 285-295).—A method is described for estimating glucose in 5 c.c. of blood. Its essential features consist in removing the proteins by combined heat coagulation and the Bohn-Rona colloidal iron precipitation, and, after heating with alkali solution, estimating the cuprous oxide formed, by the permanganate method or by simply dissolving the oxide in nitric acid, treating with ammonia, and comparing with a

standard ammoniated copper solution in a colorimeter. Most of the processes, including the reduction, are carried out in centrifuge tubes, and the precipitates collected and washed by centrifugation.

The method previously described, involving the use of methyl alcohol for the precipitation of the proteins in the blood, gave lower results for the blood sugar, and is therefore unsatisfactory.

H. W. E.

Estimation of Aldoses. I. The Action of Neutral Sodium Hypoiodite. N. BLAND and L. L. LLOYD (*J. Soc. Chem. Ind.* 1914, 33, 948-949).—In the examination of the action of sodium hypoiodite, it was found that the reaction with an aldehyde proceeds quantitatively according to the equation $\text{NaIO} + \text{CH}_2\text{O} = \text{NaI} + \text{H}\cdot\text{CO}_2\text{H}$, and may be used for the estimation of the aldehyde in aqueous solution. Five c.c. of a 1% formalin are diluted to 1 litre, and 10 c.c. of this solution is added to 50 c.c. of *N*/10-iodine solution, previously rendered slightly alkaline with sodium hydroxide. After five minutes the mixture is acidified with sulphuric acid, and the liberated iodine is titrated with thiosulphate solution. Untrustworthy results are obtained when the method is applied to paraformaldehyde or acetaldehyde.

In the case of sugars, neutral sodium hypoiodite oxidizes the aldehyde group; for instance, the aldehyde group in dextrose requires one molecule of iodine or hypoiodite. Lævulose and sucrose contain no aldehyde group, and do not react with neutral hypoiodite, but the latter sugar, on inversion, yields dextrose and lævulose, and requires one molecule of iodine. The following results were obtained with different sugars; in each case 10 c.c. of a 1% solution of the sugar were added to a mixture of 10 c.c. of *N*/10-iodine solution and 50 c.c. of *N*/10-sodium hydroxide solution (this produces a neutral solution); after five minutes contact, the solution was acidified, and the liberated iodine was estimated. Dextrose, 96.4 to 99.7%; lactose, 99.1 to 99.4%; maltose, 99.1 to 101.8%; sucrose (after inversion), 100.8 to 101.3%; lactose (after inversion), 99.1 to 99.4%; maltose (after inversion), 99.1 to 99.9.

W. P. S.

Estimation of Pentosans. J. VAN HAARST and S. C. J. OUD (*Chem. Weekblad*, 1914, 11, 918-925).—A comparison of results obtained in the estimation of pentosans by Tollens's method with that given in the Dutch "Codex Alimentarius." The authors commend distilling with hydrochloric acid at the standard rate 400 c.c. in two hours. A slower rate tends to decompose part of the furfuraldehyde, while more rapid distillation fails to effect complete decomposition of pentosans containing arabinose. The results obtained by Tollens's method are more accurate than those given by the process of the "Codex Alimentarius," but the published tables for calculating the amount of the pentosan gives the velocity of distillation employed in their compilation.

A. J. W.

Determination of Hydrogen Cyanide in Feeding Stuff, and Occurrence in Millet and Guinea Corn. J. R. FURLONG (*Anal. Chem.*, 1914, 39, 430—432).—The method consists essentially in conversion of the hydrogen cyanide into Prussian blue, and estimation of the latter colorimetrically. One hundred grams of the ground substance are extracted for three hours in a Soxhlet apparatus with 90% alcohol. The extract is transferred to a flask, and after the alcohol has been distilled off, 150 c.c. of 10% stannous chloride solution are added, and the distillation is continued, the distillate being collected in a receiver containing 5 c.c. of 10% potassium hydroxide solution. After one hour the receiver is removed, water is added to the flask, and a second quantity of distillate collected. These operations are repeated until the evolution of hydrocyanic acid ceases. The distillate is concentrated to one-third of its volume by boiling for ten minutes with the addition of 1 c.c. of 20% potassium sulphate solution containing 1% of ferric chloride, cooled, and mixed with hydrochloric acid, and 10 c.c. of glycerol are added. After about fifteen hours, the mixture is diluted with water to 100 c.c., and the blue coloration compared with that given by known quantities of hydrogen cyanide under similar conditions. When a small amount of hydrogen cyanide present is not less than 0.001 g., the standards may be made up directly, but with smaller quantities it is necessary to dilute to 150 c.c. and then concentrate. In the preparation of the solution from the substance under examination. Estimations of hydrogen cyanide in millet and guinea corn plants of various ages showed that all the young plants contained a cyanogenetic glucoside, whilst the full-grown plants were free from this substance. In the case of guinea corn, the amount of hydrogen cyanide reached a maximum (0.01%) in the young plants, and decreased as growth proceeded. With millet the maximum amount (0.045%) was found in the plants which attained a height of 24 inches.

W. P. S.

Estimation of Acidity of Fresh Milk of Cows and a Method for Determination of Acidity. LUCIUS L. VAN SLYKE and H. W. BOWWORTH (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 73—76).—The acidity of fresh milk is due to the presence of acid phosphates. Addition of alkali to milk leads to the hydrolysis of the calcium phosphates present, so that by the direct titration of milk with alkali, using phenolphthalein as indicator, results are obtained for the acidity which may be twice as great as they should be. The calcium must, therefore, be removed before titrating with the alkali, by treating 100 c.c. of milk with 2 c.c. of a saturated solution of normal potassium oxalate, and keeping the mixture for more than two minutes.

H. W. B.

Phocarbon Oil. F. CANZONERI and G. BIANCHINI (*Ann. Chim. Fis.*, 1914, 2, 1—9).—The authors describe the composition, properties, and means of detection in mixtures of the so-called "phocarbon" oil, that is, olive oil extracted by means of carbon disulphide.

T. H. P.

Specific Reaction of Oils of Marine Animals and the Products of Hydrogenation. M. TONELLI and E. JAFFE (*Chim. Applicata*, 1914, 2, 80—98).—The reactions previously described as specific for the oils and fats of marine animals are due to specificities or to products of alteration which may be eliminated during the purification, and may also be found in fats and oils of mineral or vegetable origin. The authors find, however, that the following test is given by the oils and fats of marine animals and by no others; the quantities in brackets represent the proportions to be taken in examining a fat obtained by catalytic hydrogenation. Into a graduated cylinder of about 15 mm. (3/4 in.) diameter and 15 c.c. (25 c.c.) in capacity, and fitted with a ground stopper, are introduced 1 c.c. (5 c.c.) of the oil or melted fat, 10 c.c. (10 c.c.) of chloroform, and 1 c.c. (1 c.c.) of glacial acetic acid, which are shaken to give a homogeneous mixture. When 40 drops (2.5 c.c.) of a 10% solution of bromine in chloroform are vigorously agitated for a few seconds, the cylinder being placed on a sheet of paper. If the oil is derived from a marine animal, the liquid becomes first red and, within a minute, green, the colour increasing in intensity for some time, and then remaining constant for an hour. The coloration is formed very rapidly with highly refined oils, and varies from green with yellowish reflection to green with a bluish reflection, according to the origin of the oil. In the case of a hydrogenated oil, the coloration is reddish-yellow, and the final intense green coloration is obtained with greater rapidity than with the non-hydrogenated oils.

The reaction serves for the detection of the presence of marine alimentary fats of synthetic fats prepared from the oils of marine animals. T. H. P.

Drying Urine for Chemical Analysis. WINFRED W. FORD (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 105—113).—In drying urine from herbivora for the determination of the heat of combustion, it is found that large quantities of ammonia and carbon dioxide are evolved. The methods used to remove the water are (1) to dry in a desiccator over sulphuric acid at about 5 mm. pressure at 100° temperature, and (2) to pass over the sample a current of dry air free from ammonia and carbon dioxide. The loss of nitrogen under these conditions may amount to as much as 50% of the total nitrogen of the urine, and arises mainly from the decomposition of ammonium carbonate, and not of urea or hippuric acid. If carbon dioxide is lost in a quantity more than sufficient to combine with the ammonia lost to form the normal carbonate.

The author estimates the total carbon and total hydrogen (including that of the water) in the fresh undried urine by combustion in an ordinary combustion furnace; this method gives constant results. H. W. F.

A Permanent Preparation of Urease, and its Use in the Estimation of Urea. DONALD D. VAN SLYKE and GLENN E. COLE (*J. Biol. Chem.*, 1914, 19, 211—228).—Urease in powder form

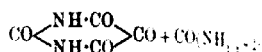
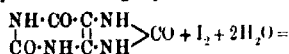
pared by extracting soja bean meal with water at room temperature, and then pouring the clear extract into at least ten times volume of acetone. The precipitated urease can be dried in vacuum, and maintains its activity for an apparently indefinite time. It is soluble in water, and the solution, if kept at 0° , does not lose its activity for several weeks, especially if 5% of dipotassium hydrogen phosphate is also present in the solution. For estimating urea in urine, one-half c.c. of urine is mixed with 1 c.c. of 0.6% potassium dihydrogen phosphate and 1 c.c. of a 10% solution of urease. After twenty minutes at 15° , or three minutes at 50° , to complete the decomposition of the urea, 4 to 5 grams of sodium carbonate are added, and the ammonia then aspirated with 25 c.c. of $N/50$ -hydrochloric or sulphuric acid. When the reaction is finished, the excess of acid is titrated with $N/50$ -alkali. Urease is a particularly valuable reagent because it enables a direct estimation of the urea in the blood to be made, its action being so specific that no other constituent of the blood is attacked. The original paper must be consulted for the details of the methods and apparatus recommended by the authors. H. W. B.

Estimation of Uric Acid in Urine. DOMENICO GANA-SINI (*Boll. Farm.*, 1914, 53, 257-262).—In the author's method the following solutions are employed: (1) Salkowski-Ludwig reagent, prepared by mixing equal volumes of (a) and (b) immediately preceding: (a) 26 grams of silver nitrate are dissolved in 100 c.c. of distilled water, and ammonia solution added until brown precipitate at first formed dissolves completely, the solution then made up to 1 litre with water; (b) 100 grams of potassium chloride and 150 grams of ammonium chloride are dissolved in about 500 c.c. of distilled water, ammonia solution in excess added, and the volume made up to 1 litre. (2) Aqueous 2% calcium acetate prepared in the hot; this serves as a defecating and clearing agent, mucinoid substances and uranyl phosphate being precipitated, together with pigmentary matter. (3) Decinormal potassium iodide solution containing 25 grams of potassium iodide per litre. (4) 1% aqueous solution of indigo-carmin. The procedure is as follows:

One hundred c.c. of the urine are mixed with 20 c.c. of the calcium acetate solution, and the liquid at once poured on to a dry filter. Sixty c.c. of the filtrate are introduced into a 100 c.c. flask containing 10 c.c. of the Salkowski-Ludwig reagent, the flask being well stirred, and, after a short time, the precipitate filtered quantitatively on a small filter, and washed three or four times with water. Most of the precipitate is then returned to the filtration vessel by means of a glass rod, and treated with about 10 c.c. of a solution of 2 grams of potassium iodide in 150 c.c. of water. The turbid liquid thus obtained is then poured through the filter, containing the remainder of the precipitate, which is washed several times with the potassium iodide solution. The filtrate, consisting of about 150 c.c. of colourless, almost clear liquid, is decolourised by the addition of a drop or two of acetic acid, and

rendered alkaline by means of about 5 grams of potassium carbonate. The solution is then made slightly but distinctly blue by the addition of more drops of the indigo-carmin solution, and is then immediately shaken with decinormal iodine solution until a single drop causes an immediate change from blue to yellowish-green. The number of c.c. of decinormal iodine used, multiplied by 0.0076, yields the amount of uric acid in grams per 100 c.c. of the urine. The accuracy of the method has been tested by means of both a standard solution of pure potassium urate and urines containing the added proportions of uric acid.

The action of iodine on uric acid in presence of borax is represented by the following equation:



The alloxan thus formed is also acted on by the iodine, but the action is so slow as to be virtually negligible; the same is true with the purine derivatives, other than uric acid, occurring in urine.

T. H. P.

Separate Estimations of the Purine Substances and Uric Acid in Urine. DOMENICO GANASSINI (*Boll. Chim. Ital.* 1914, 53, 262--265).—This method is based on the fact that silver-magnesium precipitate yielded by the Salkowski-Ludwig reagent is, when thoroughly washed and suspended in water, neutral towards phenolphthalein. When, however, highly concentrated aqueous potassium iodide is added, the precipitate dissolves almost completely, and the liquid becomes intensely alkaline, due to the formation of normal potassium urate and of the potassium salts of the other purine derivatives present. The alkalinity of the liquid is, therefore, directly proportional to the content of purine compounds, inclusive of the uric acid. The latter may subsequently be estimated separately in the same liquid by the method already described (preceding abstract).

The procedure is at first similar to that used in the estimation of uric acid alone (*loc. cit.*), with the exception that the precipitate given by the Salkowski-Ludwig reagent is washed with distilled water until the washing water fails to react alkaline with phenolphthalein or litmus. The solution of this precipitate in the potassium iodide solution, amounting to about 150 c.c., is titrated with *N*/20-sulphuric acid solution in presence of 5—6 drops of alcoholic phenolphthalein. Four or five grams of potassium bicarbonate and 10 drops of 0.1% indigo-carmin solution are then added to the liquid, which is titrated with *N*/10-iodine solution until the blue colour changes to green. Multiplication of the number of c.c. of *N*/20-sulphuric acid over that of *N*/10-iodine by 0.0076 yields the number of grams of purine compounds, calculated as xanthine, in 50 c.c. of the urine. The uric

cc. of $N/10$ -iodine, multiplied by 0.0084, gives the grams of acid in 50 c.c. of the urine.

T. H. P.

Some New Tests for Veronal. H. LUCAS (*Pharm. J.*, 1914, 1, 144).—The odour of iodoform is observed when veronal is heated with aqueous sodium hydroxide, and the resulting solution cooled and then warmed with a solution of iodine.

The residue obtained by fusing veronal with sodium hydroxide gives a purplish-violet biuret reaction with a drop of aqueous copper sulphate, and liberates nitrogen (not quantitatively) by treatment with concentrated sodium hypobromite.

C. S.

Estimation of Antipyrine. W. O. EMERY and S. PALKIN (*J. Ind. Pharm.*, 1914, 6, 751—753).—The method depends on the solubility of iodoantipyrine in chloroform. In the case of antipyrine or in such admixture that after treatment with iodine no substance other than iodoantipyrine will be extracted by chloroform, a quantity of the sample containing not more than 0.25 gram antipyrine is shaken with 20 c.c. of water, 5 c.c. of alcohol-free chloroform, 0.5 gram of sodium hydrogen carbonate, and a slight excess of iodine solution. After a short time, the excess of iodine is decomposed by the addition of a few drops of thiosulphate solution, the iodoantipyrine is shaken out with chloroform, the chloroform solution is washed with water, filtered, evaporated in a glass flask, and the residue is weighed. The weight of the residue, multiplied by 0.5992 gives the quantity of antipyrine present. If the antipyrine is mixed with phenacetin, sulphonal, or any other substance, a weighed portion of the sample is shaken with 20 c.c. of water, 20 c.c. of concentrated hydrochloric acid, and an excess of iodine solution. After some hours the liquid is decanted and a glass-wool filter, the tarry residue is washed with 5% hydrochloric acid, then dissolved in about 50 c.c. of methyl alcohol (which must be free from ethyl alcohol and acetone), the solution is diluted with 50 c.c. of water and sodium hydrogen carbonate, and the excess of iodine has been destroyed by the addition of thiosulphate solution, the iodoantipyrine is extracted with chloroform.

W. P. S.

Use of Manganese Carbonate in the Detection of Traces of Strychnine. G. GUÉRIN (*J. Pharm. Chim.*, 1914, [vii], 9, 525).—The author finds that the sensitiveness of the test for strychnine by means of sulphuric acid and potassium dichromate is exaggerated, and that the detection of 0.01 mg. by this method is uncertain. This quantity can be readily detected by the reaction of Mandelin (0.5 gram ammonium vanadate in 100 grams pure sulphuric acid), of Wenzell (potassium permanganate 0.5 gram) in pure sulphuric acid [100 grams]), or of Sonnenschein (0.5 gram cerium oxide). According to the author, the last two methods appear to be more sensitive than that first named. The method which is as sensitive as any of those described above is in dissolving the alkaloid in two or three drops of sulphuric

acid and adding 2—3 mg. of manganese carbonate. On heating blue coloration is developed, which gradually becomes violet, then pink.

Application of Tungsten Salts to the Analysis of Tanning Materials. ALEXANDER T. HOUGH (*J. Soc. Chem. Ind.*, 1914, 1, 847—848).—Two reagents, prepared from sodium tungstate, apparently give different results (amounts of precipitate) with the same tannin, and it is suggested that it may be possible to estimate the purity of a given tannin extract by the constancy of the ratio between the two results. The reagents are prepared as follows: (1) 10% sodium tungstate solution, 5 c.c.; water, 2 c.c.; ammonium chloride solution, 3 c.c.; (2) 10% sodium tungstate solution, 5 c.c.; 8% hydrochloric acid, 2 c.c.; 25% ammonium chloride solution, 3 c.c. A tannin solution is made containing about 4 grams of tannin per 250 c.c., and 10 c.c. of this solution are mixed with 10 c.c. of the first reagent; the mixture is filtered on a filter, and 10 c.c. of the filtrate are evaporated to dryness and the residue is weighed (A). The precipitate on the filter is then dissolved in hot water, the solution is added to the residue of the filtrate, and the whole is evaporated to dryness. B is the actual weight of the precipitate is $B - A$; it is necessary to ascertain the weight of the precipitate by this indirect method, cannot be washed. A similar estimation is then made using the second reagent. The amount of precipitate is calculated as a percentage of tanning material in the extract, and from this it is possible to estimate the quantity of total solids and of tannin (C) in the extract is estimated. Then $100(B - A)/C$ gives the "tungstic number" of the tannin, using the first reagent; the same figure gives the "tungstic number," using the second reagent. Presumably, "tungstic"/"tungstate" = K for any given tanning material. The author has applied the method only to tannin extract, in which case $K = 1.0503$. W. P. S.

Quantitative Estimation of Aspartic and Glutamic Acids in the Products of Protein Hydrolysis. FREDERICK WILLIAM FOREMAN (*Biochem. J.*, 1914, 8, 463—480).—After hydrolysis of the protein with hydrochloric acid, the glutamic and aspartic acids are converted into their calcium salts, which are then quantitatively precipitated by the addition of alcohol. After removal from the alcohol-soluble calcium salts of the other acids present, the free acids are regenerated by dissolving in water, adding oxalic acid. Traces of accompanying impurities are removed by successive treatment with silver sulphate and phosphotungstic acid. The resulting solution on evaporation yields a crystalline mass, which is now extracted with glacial acetic acid. The residue consists of a mixture of glutamic and aspartic acids, and the proportionate quantity of each present is calculated from the carbon content of the mixture. As the difference between percentages of carbon in glutamic and aspartic acids is as 47.3, the proportion can be determined with tolerable accuracy.

A small quantity of the glutamic acid is transformed into α -ketoglutaric acid during the preliminary processes indicated above, and is found in the glacial acetic acid extract. It is estimated by measuring the amino-nitrogen before and after boiling with hydrochloric acid, which reconverts the ring compound into glutamic acid.

The actual separation of aspartic and glutamic acids is effected by fractional crystallisation of the copper salts, copper aspartate crystallising out first. When most of the aspartate has been removed, the larger portion of the glutamic acid is separated by converting it into the hydrochloride.

By means of this method, caseinogen is found to contain 21.77% glutamic acid and 1.71% of aspartic acid, or about twice as much as has hitherto been accepted.

H. W. B.

The Ferric Alum Estimation of Casein. H. V. ARMY and H. SCHAEFFER (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 748-751).—Two estimations have been made in a method described previously (1906, ii, 407) for the estimation of casein in milk: to ensure complete titration, the mixture of milk and ferric alum solution is made for one hour before the precipitate is collected, and the titration is made with *N*/50 thiosulphate solution. The method as used at present, is as follows. Five grams of milk are mixed with 5 c.c. of ferric alum solution (48.2224 grams of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$ per litre), and, after one hour, the precipitate is filtered on a filter and washed until free from soluble iron. The filtrate is treated with 3 c.c. of 31% hydrochloric acid and 10 c.c. of potassium iodide, heated to 40° for thirty minutes in a boiling flask, and the liberated iodine is titrated with *N*/50 sodium thiosulphate solution. Each c.c. of the ferric alum solution required for the precipitation is equivalent to 0.05934 gram of casein.

W. P. S.

Comparison of Methods for the Determination of the Catalytic Activity of Pancreas Preparations. J. H. LONG

A. W. BARTON (*J. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 1914, 36, 2151-2166).—The object of this work was to compare the different standards for the evaluation of the various commercial trypsins or pancreatins. The proteolytic value of six such trypsin preparations has been compared by four distinct methods, namely, the metacasein reaction, the Fuld-Gross sodium caseinate digestion method, the formaldehyde titration of amino-acids produced by digestion, and the nitrogen digestion. The results obtained by the four methods agree in ranking the activities of the six preparations in the same order, but they do not agree as to relative quantitative value of the different ferments, for the strongest ferment according to the metacasein reaction appears to be about twelve times as strong as the weakest, and according to the fibrin digestion about ten times as strong, whilst by the other tests the relation obtained is as 1:3:1. Still greater irregularities appear in comparing some of the other preparations.

The products sold as trypsin or pancreatin probably contain at least two different enzymes, reacting in different ways with proteins, and the effects produced in any case depend on the proportions in which the enzymes are present. These enzymes possess different degrees of stability towards heat.

It is not at present possible to convert the proteolytic value of tryptic ferment from the terms of one standard to those of another, since the products are made by very different processes, which probably yield mixtures of ferments in widely different proportions together with unknown quantities of inorganic salts. A rational definition of trypsin is desirable, and products should be made to conform to interchangeable standards.

E. G.

Electrical Method of Estimating Salt in Soil. W. H. BEAM and GILBERT A. FAKAK (*Cairo Sci. J.*, 1914, 8, 130—132). In estimating the amount of soluble salts in soils by the conductivity method, the error due to the nature of the salts present may be corrected by constructing special tables for the particular combination of salts in the area under examination. The results are especially affected by sodium carbonate, and the resistance is much higher when much organic matter is present (Davies and Bly, *U.S. Dept. Agric. Bur. Soils*, Bull. 61). A more important source of error is that due to the presence of calcium salts (e.g., calcium sulphate), which is not only harmless, but beneficial in neutralising the effects of toxic salts. This error is avoided by extracting the salts with 40% alcohol instead of water, and comparing the results with those obtained with a solution of salt in the same solvent. Calcium sulphate may then be estimated, if desired, by extracting with water as well.

In the case of soils containing moderate amounts of salts, the method usually employed is to treat an amount of soil, containing about 20 grams of dry matter, with 100 c.c. of 40% alcohol, and shake for ten to fifteen minutes. Shaking for one minute gives nearly the same results, and variations, from 38—42% alcohol strength of the alcohol are without much influence.

In testing the method with solutions of known composition, a solution containing 0.030% of gypsum and 0.131% of sodium chloride was found to have a resistance of 210 ohms instead of the calculated resistance of 220 ohms.

N. H. J. M.

Estimation of the Lime Requirement of Soils by means of [Barium Hydroxide]. C. R. MOULTON and P. F. TAYLOR BRIDGE (*J. Ind. Eng. Chem.*, 1914, 6, 835—837).—The lime requirement of a soil, as estimated by boiling the soil with an excess of $N/10$ -barium hydroxide solution and measuring the excess means of the ammonia set free from added ammonium chloride is proportional to the quantity of barium hydroxide used, and to the acidity of the soil. The result obtained is considerably better than when the Vietch method is employed. Further, the lime requirement varies with the duration of the distillation and the volume of the distillate until the lime requirement falls to a minimum (compare Bizzell and Lyon, this vol., ii, 150).

W. P. S.

